The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 5, 1898.

The Week.

The first battle of the war has taken place where it was expected. Admiral Dewey has demolished the Spanish fleet, as he was expected to do, in the Philippine Islands. The completeness of the victory is acknowledged in Madrid. The only thing we need to know about it is the amount of damage Admiral Dewey has himself sustained. The importance of this, however, depends on the question whether it was his intention, or whether he had instructions, to do more than demolish the fleet. So confident were the Board of Naval Strategy at Washington of the superiority of our six ships to the Spanish nine or ten, even when the latter were under the guns of the forts, that they did not hesitate to detach the powerful battleship *Oregon* from the Pacific squadron. This looked like a reckless proceeding, but the result has vindicated the Board. All danger of raids on our Pacific Coast is now removed, and our navy has only to reckon up the remaining strength of the Spanish fighting marine in the Atlantic. While this is, of course, not to be underestimated, it is far inferior to ours even on paper, while there is good reason to believe that the demoralization of the Spanish service has not failed to reach the navy. It is asserted by experts, French and other, that squadron evolutions and gunnery practice are almost unknown to the Spanish fleet. With the exception of the *Vizcaya* and the *Oquendo*, it is maintained by those who ought to know that the Spanish war-ships are away below par in equipment, drill, and discipline. Coleridge asserted that the discipline on Spanish ships was, in his time, the loosest in the world, and that in the American navy the most severe. This may not entirely hold now, but everything points to its being still measurably true.

Before war was declared, it was suddenly turned into a war to avenge the *Maine*. Has not this object been attained? We are reported to have killed or drowned 400 Spaniards. Two hundred and sixty-six men are reported to have perished in the *Maine* explosion; this leaves us with 134 dead Spaniards to our credit, which surely ought to satisfy us, unless another fight should put the balance on the other side. We do not know whether this account is quite correct, because we have heard as yet no report of Dewey's losses. If he has had any, they will, of course, have to be deducted from our credit. We notice that Bishop Whipple has directed a prayer in his diocese for the protection of our soldiers in the field, but the Spaniards are praying busily for the protection of their soldiers. In every war between Christian nations these conflicting prayers have been a scandal, ever since the foundation of Christianity, and we hoped they had ceased. They are founded on the theory that the Creator takes a certain pleasure in watching fights, and that he gives the victory to the pluckiest and best drilled. It would be better for religion to have this view of the Creator's tastes drop out of sight. To the question why God permits war if he does not like it and does not take sides in it, we must answer by asking why he permits robbery, murder, and lynching, and lying? As we know we shall not get any authoritative answer to these questions, had we not better leave the subject alone?

Opinions differ very widely as to the probable total cost of the existing war. In the twelve months beginning with the real outbreak of civil war, in July, 1861, the War Department's expenditure was $389,173,562, the navy adding $42,640,353. In the last year of that war, army and navy expenditure combined reached the extraordinary total of $1,153,307,834. The Government spent, in fact, during that fiscal year 1865, no less a sum than $3,000,000 daily. Its normal expenditure in recent years, even with pension and miscellaneous appropriations at their highest, has been something short of $900,000 daily. With the $431,813,000 outlay for army and navy, even in the first year of the civil war, may be contrasted last year's disbursement of only $83,511,000 for the same two purposes. Of course, such an increase as that of 1862 or 1865 assumes pretty continuous fighting with a large armed force; and of course, also, in the long run, an army in active operation will cost more than a navy. There is not, therefore, any great probability that our "war budget," even with the present extensive preparations, could reach the level of the budget of those years. Until, however, the outlook as to the probable length of war is clear, the Government is right in making appropriations with a view to a costly contest. Mr. Dingley's proposed increase of $90,000,000 in the annual revenue is small enough, when it is considered that the present revenue law has run short of expenditure, thus far in the fiscal year, by $66,000,000. Besides, who is to guarantee Dingley's ninety-million estimate?

The amendment offered by Mr. Bland to the revenue bill in the House, for printing $150,000,000 new legal-tender notes to be used in payment of the public expenses, is significant of a drift of the Democratic party away from free silver towards free greenbacks. If anybody in the House might have been confidently reckoned on to stand by the silver dollar, that man was Bland. At any time during the past twenty years, when a question of finance was under debate, it would have been expected of him to propose free coinage as the rainbow of hope and a cure for all financial ills. But, lo and behold, in the face of war, when we are under the necessity of raising some hundreds of millions of dollars in one way and another, Mr. Bland comes forward with what? His proposed substitute for the tax and loan bill is so remarkable, when we consider its source, that we quote it entire:

> "That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized and directed to cause to be engraved and printed United States Treasury notes to the amount of $150,000,000. Said Treasury notes shall be a legal tender in the payment of all debts, public and private, and be issued in like denominations as is now provided by law for United States notes commonly called 'greenbacks.' That the Treasury notes herein authorized shall be covered into the Treasury and paid out from time to time in the discharge of public expenditures as the exigencies of the Treasury may require.
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> "Section 2. That a sufficient sum of money is hereby appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, to carry this act into effect."

We say that this is a remarkable measure when we consider its parentage, but it is not the only sign of the drift of the Democratic party towards Middle-of-the Road Populism. Congressman Kitchen of North Carolina, who stands in the nomenclature of that State as "Dem.-Pop.," introduced a bill the other day for $500,000,000 of new legal-tender notes. To this he attached a section for "coining the seigniorage" and another for the free coinage of silver, but these were quite secondary to the greenback feature of the bill.

It would be a gain to get rid of Bailey of Texas on almost any terms. He came forward last week with a proposition to "coin the seigniorage" of a lot of silver bullion in the Treasury, to the amount of $42,000,000, and to issue notes on the "untaxed credit" of the Government to the amount of $54,000,000. What is the untaxed credit of the Government? Is there also a taxed credit of the Government which constitutes a less favorable basis for note issues than the untaxed credit? We acknowledge that we cannot understand either of these terms. We only know that it means a fresh issue of greenbacks, and that "coining the seigniorage" means the same thing in its financial intendment and effect. Whatever form of paper is put out for public disbursements is an addition to the Gov-

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ernment's demand liabilities, and the very first issue of such paper would precipitate a run on the Treasury which would be required to meet not only these new notes, but all the others as fast as they could be presented. So the Bailey programme may be defined as a scheme to get the country into a war and to get it into bankruptcy as soon as possible thereafter. Bailey says that "when the point of safety in that direction has been reached" (that is, in the direction of new greenback issues), "it will be time enough for Congress to authorize the issue of interest-bearing obligations." But the very first move in that direction would strip the Government of its gold or compel it to suspend gold payments, and that is what Bailey and his partisans want to accomplish.

We are in receipt of several inquiries as to what the "seigniorage" is which Bailey and his happy-go-lucky Opposition in Congress are proposing to coin. The answer is, that no such seigniorage exists or ever did exist. Governments sometimes, in their coinage of gold, reserve from the bullion tendered at the mint a very small percentage to defray the cost of minting. In other words, they give back in coin to the owner of the bullion a trifle less of gold than they received. Obviously, such a principle could not apply except under free coinage, which exists in the case of gold. What Bland, Bailey, and their fellow-fanatics mean when they talk about the "silver seigniorage" is the profit made by the Government, during the period of compulsory silver-dollar coinage, by purchasing silver at the market price and putting it out in dollar coins which were not intrinsically worth one hundred cents. Between 1878 and 1894 about 548,000,000 of such dollars were coined and issued. The bullion in these coins cost the Government from 50 to 90 cents for every dollar coined, but the coins were used to pay the Treasury's debts at the uniform rate of 100 cents apiece. Few people without an axe to grind would be so dense as to call this enormous difference a "seigniorage"; what it actually is can easily be discovered. The dollars thus coined were fiat money to precisely the amount of difference between their legal and intrinsic value. It is this fiat quality—this vacuum, as Mr. Hewitt aptly described it—which the profound economists of the Opposition wish to "coin." Of course, the process described above left no silver in the Treasury's hands, and, of course, the Government instantly used up its 10 to 50 per cent. book profit on the coinage, and a good deal more, by increased pension and river and harbor appropriations. Bailey, however, not only insists on "coining" this fund already spent by the Government, but on issuing new legal-tender notes with such coinage as a basis. The nearest parallel to such a business is the practice of certain railways, not very long ago, which entered their losses on the books as assets and declared cash dividends on the basis of it. Most people know what happened to the railways.

The Madrid correspondent of the London *Times* has unquestionably got hold of the diplomatic correspondence between McKinley and Sagasta. Whether by betrayal in the Spanish Foreign Office, or by a discreet official leak, with the aim of winning European sympathy for Spain, the documents he has secured are plainly authentic. It seems to us that neither Congress nor the Administration ought to wait for the successive revelations of this newspaper correspondent, but that the whole should be published here at once. That course will best comport with our dignity and with the proprieties of the situation. We really ought to have had the full correspondence before declaring war; but Congress did not call for it. The President, we think, should now volunteer it, and not leave us to learn via London what it was that turned him from his resolve, at the end of December, to give Cuban autonomy a fair trial, and led him to consent to go to war in April before even the first Cuban Parliament had been elected.

The *Tribune* argues that autonomy in Cuba must fail owing to the character and want of political training of the people. Therefore, it concludes, the Administration was not to blame for not allowing it to be tried. But this must mean simply autonomy under Spanish auspices. Our congressional resolution declaring war expressly recognizes Cuban capacity for autonomy. What could be broader than this?

> "(1.) That the people of the island of Cuba are, and of right ought to be, free and independent."

The resolution then goes on to say that we must set up an autonomous government in the island. The sole importance of the matter now is, that had we waited a little longer to let the Spaniards try their autonomous experiment, our moral position in this war would be much stronger than it is. We ourselves do not believe in the Cuban capacity for autonomy in our sense of the term, either under our auspices, or under those of the Spaniards. But in the Spanish-American sense we think they are quite capable of it. We have no doubt they will, if allowed, carry on a very respectable Spanish-American government—that is, a government saved from Anglo-Saxon monotony and dulness by an occasional civil war and assassination of rulers.

That Spain's colonial policy in Cuba was vicious, and that the island was never really pacified after the former rebellion, an exceedingly interesting memorandum lately published in Madrid shows most clearly. It is an account of the state of affairs in the island written in 1892 by Gen. Polavieja, then Governor-General. This was three years before the present insurrection broke out, yet Polavieja declared that even then "a conspiracy" existed, and had, in fact, existed ever since the so-called peace of 1878. There was no prospect, he wrote, of the conspiracy ever ending, "because the separatist tendency is ingrained in practically every home-born Cuban, including the sons of Spanish immigrants. The latter, in fact, hate Spain as cordially as the oldest families of the country." This is a significant confession, considering its source. Gen. Polavieja described the way in which roving bands of brigands were even then preparing for the later outbreak. They never molested the native Cubans; were at pains, on the other hand, to be on good terms with them, paying for everything they took, and coming down hard only on the Spanish planters and manufacturers, whom they blackmailed and robbed and carried off for ransom, with open boasts that they were in that way raising funds for the revolution. The Governor-General's remedy was characteristically Spanish: less home rule, more shooting.

An interesting exposure of the "fake" dispatches in the sensational newspapers about the withdrawal of the Americans from Havana three weeks ago is made in the *Independent* by a trustworthy correspondent of that journal in Washington, who had gone to Cuba expecting to spend Easter Sunday in Havana, but had to leave, with the other Americans, the evening before. It will be remembered that it was given out by "the yellows" that 2,000 Americans would be in danger if the President sent his message to Congress before giving the Consul-General time to get Americans away from Havana. As a matter of fact, there were not at the time 200 Americans in Cuba, including naturalized citizens. The Captain of the *Mascotte*, upon arriving at Key West a few days before Easter, on his regular trip to Havana, found a dispatch from Washington ordering him to proceed at once and bring over all the "American refugees" and everybody else desiring to leave Cuba, "without regard to numbers, if they could find standing-room on the steamer." All that the Captain could find ready to come when he reached Havana were seven native Americans, fifteen naturalized American citizens, and about fifty Cubans and Spaniards who were going North. When the *Mascotte* arrived at Key West, the Captain received orders by telegraph not to go on to Tampa as usual, but to coal at once, go back to Havana the same night, and "bring over everybody who wanted to get away from Cuba." The

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second "crowd of American refugees" by this vessel consisted of seventy-four passengers, all of whom were Cubans and Spaniards going North—not a single native or naturalized citizen of this country. And yet a dispatch was sent from Tampa, and widely printed, that the *Mascotte* brought over on her first trip "320" passengers, and on the second trip "about the same number"; although the steamers of the Plant Line are by no means ocean liners, and everybody in Tampa knew that neither the *Mascotte* nor any other steamer of the line was capable of carrying "920" pasengers. As for the situation in Havana down to the very end, this writer testifies that "quiet and order prevailed in Havana and had been maintained all along, while reports to the contrary were printed far and wide in the United States," and that "while some Americans were anxious to get away, others felt no anxiety about staying another week or two, or, at any rate, until it was quite certain that war would be declared."

The attitude of the negroes in the South towards the war, as well as of the Southern whites towards the participation of negroes in it, is of interest. The colored people are by no means of the same mind in the matter throughout the South. In Virginia there seems to be comparatively little enthusiasm on the subject. A meeting at Norfolk decided to do nothing towards enlisting negroes for the war, and the *Planet*, a weekly journal published at Richmond by a colored man, pronounces it "an open question whether the colored people in Cuba will be better provided for under the American administration of affairs than they are under Spanish rule." The *Planet* expects to see the United States finally assist in setting up a government which either will be a "carpet-bag government," or will be headed by a man who will be a tool in the hands of the capitalists of New York; but "in no case will he be of African descent." In Louisiana, on the other hand, large meetings of negroes have been held at New Orleans, at which patriotic speeches have been delivered and resolutions adopted urging the colored men of the State, especially the younger ones, to organize into companies for the war. But trouble has always arisen as to how the negroes shall be led. The volunteers in New Orleans were angered by an order to go under the command of a white colonel, and insist that they ought to have a colored man at their head. In Georgia there is a discussion among the whites as to whether blacks should be accepted as part of the State's contribution to the volunteer forces. The indications seem to be that most of the whites regard the proposition with disfavor, but there are not lacking men who think and say that it would be the best thing for both races if the negroes were allowed to take part in the war as Georgia troops.

The experience of the Twenty-fifth Infantry of the regular army on its way from the Northwest to the seat of war, to help in freeing the negroes of Cuba, was very suggestive. This is a black regiment, and its chaplain, the Rev. Dr. T. G. Steward, writes to the *Independent* that, "on arriving at Nashville, the black chaplain and his family were given plainly and forcefully to understand, as they entered the railroad dining-saloon, that they could not eat with the other officers of the regiment under a Southern sky." When the regiment reached Chattanooga, the men were required to take cars separate from the whites. Before they reached Key West, the *Herald* of that city had warned the Government not to let them come to that place, and declared that their presence would endanger the peace—as soon proved to be the case. Commenting upon the separation of the races enforced in the Southern States of the Union, Mr. Steward remarks: "A glorious dilemma that will be for the Cuban negro, to usher him into the condition of the American negro."

It may not be generally known that under the treaty of 1834 Spain acknowledged herself our debtor in the sum of $600,000 for injuries inflicted upon our merchant marine during the war waged against her American colonies. Instead of paying the principal sum, however, she made it a part of her public debt, for which she issued stock bearing interest at 5 per cent. per annum. Our Government proceeded to ascertain, by means of a claims commission, which of our citizens were entitled to these funds and the amount to be distributed to each of them. For over sixty years this interest has been regularly paid by Spain and divided among the respective claimants by our Treasury Department.

The size of the enrolment of voters under the new primary-election law does not indicate a passionate popular desire to "go into the primaries." The total for the entire city is only 137,000 out of a population that cast 526,000 votes in the last election. This is only about the proportion that has heretofore taken part in the primaries. About one-quarter of all the voters have for years done all the machine party work, controlling primaries and nominating conventions, and really thus controlling the government of the city, State, and nation. It is said that many voters who desired to enroll were restrained from doing so because the law provides for the publication in the *City Record* of their names with their party affiliations. Small tradesmen and others whose business leads them to dread political persecution, were afraid to have it known to Tammany that they were working with the Republican party. There is undoubtedly something in this, but it is not sufficient to account for the abstention of the great body of voters from all opportunity to participate in the primaries. Probably the war excitement has had even greater influence. Then, too, the law has not had a favorable trial, for the enrolment under it this year is a special one, and is made in a different manner from what will be the regular method in other years. When every voter is given an opportunity on the regular days of registration to enroll himself for a vote in the primaries, he may improve it better than he has now done.

When the Comptroller read his report about the city debt at the meeting of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment on Thursday, showing that the constitutional limit had been exceeded by more than $50,000,000, the Mayor and the President of the Board of Aldermen complained that they did not understand it fully. The Comptroller said that the reason why he could not make the matter more clear was that he had not the exact figures, and could not get them within less than six months, and he begged them to consider that he had worked very hard upon his report. Everybody knows that the Comptroller made up his mind about the matter before he had examined the figures at all. He decided that the debt limit had been exceeded immediately after election, when Mr. Croker told him it had, and his subsequent examination has been directed solely to the purpose of finding figures with which to sustain Mr. Croker's view. His report shows this plainly enough. He includes in the city's indebtedness items which no Comptroller before him has ever placed there. He sets down as actual indebtedness contracts which will not be carried out for years, and the estimated cost of street and park openings which are now, and will be for years to come, before the courts. In the regular course of procedure, bonds for these proposed improvements would not be issued for ten or a dozen years. Without these unusual items, the debt limit of the old city at the close of the Strong administration was fully $40,000,000 away. By adding future contract liabilities entered into during the Strong administration, amounting to $64,000,000, the Comptroller claims that that administration exceeded the debt limit by $24,000,000. Adding to this an excess of more than $25,000,000 by other portions of the new city, figured out in the same way, he makes up his grand total of $50,000,000 of illegal indebtedness, and, after citing an opinion of the learned Whalen, Mr. Croker's Corporation Counsel, in defence of his method of figuring, he throws up his hands in despair, and fairly weeps over the "gravity of the situation,"

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THE NEW POLITICAL FORCE.

The power of making war in a democracy must always, in the last resort, no matter what the constitutional arrangements may be, reside in the mass of the people. From them must come the demand which makes either war or peace inevitable. This, in a free state, there is no getting over. It is the popular will which puts armies in motion, or says there has been fighting enough. When war breaks out, therefore, it is really brought about by the influences which have acted most powerfully on the popular mind in its favor. When one sets about a minute examination of these influences, one is apt to be astonished by the number of them that are in some way irrelevant, such as misinformation about the causes of the war, about its cost, about its duration, about the character or doings of the enemy, about his motives in fighting, about the motives of our own public men, about international rights and duties, about the Government's state of preparation to fight. This can hardly be otherwise; it is so in every free country, when the war is an offensive one or is conducted at a distance from home. It is rare in any war, except a war of independence, that the public thoroughly understands what it is fighting about.

These influences are, in the main, the speaking and the writing which precede the war or bring it about. There is no other object ever submitted to a civilized human being for his decision so important as a proposal to go to war, or, in other words, to kill on a great scale the persons living in a certain country, and destroy their property. Our public men have long ceased to try to exercise this sort of influence. However much opposed to a war they may be, they dislike extremely to say so openly. They communicate their doubts or hesitations to their friends privately, but in public they shrink so much from the charge of want of "patriotism," which is the warrior's chief weapon, that their influence through speeches is almost always on the side of war, no matter what it is about. The days of Daniel Webster, and Calhoun, and Seward seem gone for ever. What the public man generally does now is to encourage war, if he speaks about it at all.

In default of other influences, the power of moulding opinion is passing—in fact, has long since passed—into the hands of the press. As a strange fate would have it, too, the subject on which the very worst portion of the press exerts most influence is war. The fomenting of war and the publication of mendacious accounts of war have, in fact, become almost a special function of that portion of the press which is known as "yellow journals." The war increases their circulation immensely. They profit enormously by what inflicts sorrow and loss on the rest of the community. They talk incessantly of war, not in the way of instruction, but simply to excite by false news, and stimulate savage passions by atrocious suggestions. On some days they seem to have issued from an Iroquois village in war time, rather than from a Christian city. Read this, oh fighting parsons! clipped from a recent number of one of them, which claims a circulation of over a million copies every day:

"Occasionally we hear croaks from peace men. 'How sad to kill sons and fathers of sad-eyed women,' they say, etc. No sadder than to kill cousins and aunts of sad-eyed rattlesnakes. The man who would object to this war would object to the wholesale destruction of poisonous reptiles in India. And as for the American who has any feeling about the war other than a red-hot desire to hear of victories and Spanish ships sunk, all we can say is that he reminds us of the cannibal toad now on exhibition in the Paris Jardin d'Acclimatation."

Now the characteristic of these papers, which, as we have said, so powerfully influence opinion, is that they are, for the first time in American history, an irresponsible force, and the only one in the state. Every other influence in the community, not openly criminal, acknowledges some sort of restraint. The gamblers and policy-dealers live in fear of the police; the venders of obscene literature all have Anthony Comstock before their eyes; the dishonest business men live in dread of the loss of reputation or credit. Nearly every person prominent in any walk of life works under the control of something in the shape of a conscience. There are some things he does, or does not do, because his own heart tells him they would be wrong. Even our Congressmen stand in awe of their constituents. Statesmen recoil from violating the Constitution. Professional men dread the opinion of their professional brethren. In short, it would be difficult to name any body of men, pursuing a calling not openly criminal, who do not live and labor under some sort of discipline, seen or unseen, which constantly reminds them that they, too, have duties which they must perform, or suffer in some way.

From every such discipline or restraint, except libel suits, the yellow journalist is absolutely free. His one object is to circulate widely and make money. And he does circulate widely. He treats war as a prize-fight, and begets in hundreds of thousands of the class which enjoys prize-fights, an eager desire to hear about it or read about it. These hundreds of thousands write to their Congressmen clamoring for war, as the Romans used to clamor for *panem et circenses;* and as the timid and quiet are generally attending only too closely to their business, the Congressman concludes that if he, too, does not shout for war, he will lose his seat.

This is an absolutely new state of things. In none of our former wars did anything like the modern press play any part. In the Mexican war we even had a powerful anti-slavery press fighting vigorously for peace and justice, and, not to forget a great name, we had Lowell on the same side. The conservative, pro-slavery papers of that day, like the Washington *Intelligencer*, were gentlemanly, sober-minded sheets, still influenced by the old traditions of constitutional logic-chopping. In the civil war, too, the great newspapers were serious publications. Our cheap press today speaks in tones never before heard out of Paris. It urges upon ignorant people schemes more savage, disregard of either policy, or justice, or experience more complete, than the modern world has witnessed since the French Revolution. It is true it addresses the multitude mainly or only. The wise and learned and the pious and industrious do not read it. But it is the multitude mainly, and not the wise and learned and industrious, who now set fleets and armies in motion, who impose silence and acquiescence on all as soon as the word "war" is mentioned, and insist successfully that they shall not be interfered with, by either voice or vote, until they have had their fill of fighting. They have already established a régime in which a blackguard boy with several millions of dollars at his disposal has more influence on the use a great nation may make of its credit, of its army and navy, of its name and traditions, than all the statesmen and philosophers and professors in the country. If this does not supply food for reflection about the future of the nation to thoughtful men, it must be because the practice of reflection has ceased.

It is hardly possible to drop the subject without a word about the way in which men supposed to be thoughtful and far-seeing help these very agencies which are robbing them every year more and more of their legitimate influence on the affairs of the nation. There appears to be hardly a clergyman, statesman, or lawyer in the country who does not denounce the yellow journals, and deplore their influence on the young and ignorant, and yet, whenever a yellow journal finds it desirable for advertising purposes to give itself a look of respectability, it does not find much difficulty in getting our prominent public teachers and moralists to comply with a request, fortified by a yellow check drawn on the proceeds of humbug and villany, to sanctify their columns with discourses on morality, patriotism, and religion. This is due partly to fear, and partly to vanity. The fear is that the yellow journal may, as it says, "alter its opinion about them"—that is, blackguard them vigorously and call them names for a week or two. The vanity comes from a delicious belief that anything which appears from their pens anywhere is sure to convince the yellow reader of his sin. It is very like a discourse to Marat from the Duc de la

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Rochefoucault, on "liberty, equality, and fraternity."

WAYS AND MEANS.

The cash balance in the Treasury March 5, 1897, was $212,725,207, of which $150,693,630 was gold. On April 22, 1898, the cash balance was $219,601,919, of which $180,924,570 was in gold. The principal transformation had been in exchanging paper for gold, and at the end of nearly fourteen months the Treasury is in no better position, even on the basis of peace, than it was when Mr. McKinley came in. It must be remembered that this showing includes the bookkeeping operation by which the deficit was covered up. This deficit was $49,648,335 on March 4, 1897, and $7,636,862 on April 22, 1898. Of course, at the end of June, 1897, the old deficit (only $18,052,254) was wiped out, and placed in the Treasury books as a closed transaction. On July 1 the new deficit began to accumulate, and is apparently nearly $8,000,000 to-day, in spite of the crediting of $58,448,223 obtained from the Union Pacific Railroad. The true deficit from July 1, 1897, to April 23, 1898, is $66,085,085. Some allowance may be asked on the ground of extraordinary war expenses. To show how large such an allowance is, we compare the expenditures from July 1, 1896, to April 22, 1897, and for the same period in 1897-'98:

Expenditure for	1896-7.	1897-8.
Civil and miscellaneous	$77,433,311	$82,314,799
War	41,003,513	52,881,883
Navy	27,881,267	38,856,978
Indians	11,357,876	9,832,678
Pensions	118,146,035	122,909,627
Interest	34,046,328	32,477,305
Total	$309,868,330	$339,273,268

Of this expenditure only that for war and navy and a part of civil and miscellaneous, or about $27,000,000, can be set down to war. Deducting this from the true deficit, we have $39,085,000 as the deficit that would have existed under normal conditions. In the face of the predictions so confidently made for the revenue features of the Dingley bill, this is a sorry showing, for it means a deficit of nearly $2,000,000 a month since the law went into operation. Comparing the revenue for the period of July 1, 1896, to April 22, 1897, with that for the corresponding period of 1897-'98, the result is very suggestive:

Source.	1896-7.	1897-8.
Customs	$130,046,531	$117,512,863
Internal revenue	119,669,861	134,133,898
Miscellaneous	19,800,410	77,989,647
Total	$269,516,802	$331,036,408

As the Pacific Railroad transaction is shown in the huge "miscellaneous" receipts, we leave it to others to figure out where the Treasury would have been but for that adventitious circumstance and the increase in internal revenue.

This has an immediate bearing upon the question now to be encountered in raising war revenue. Mr. Dingley proved himself such a mistaken prophet on tariff matters that any further estimates from the same source will be seriously questioned. Nor can it be said that the atmosphere pervading the ways and means committee is one to give confidence. Loudly protesting that this tariff only needed time to become a producer of a surplus, Mr. Dingley has frowned upon critics, whistled down facts that told against him, and, finding that "anticipatory importations" have ceased to silence inquiry, now seeks cover under "war expenditure" to conceal his failure. It is Mr. Dingley as a financier who is on trial, and it is as a somewhat discredited financier that he enters upon his new rôle of revenue provider.

The Treasury is not in a strong position for war expenditure, yet its credit is high, and there will be no limit to its ability to borrow, provided a due share is obtained from taxation, on the proceeds of which credit may rest with safety, and provided also the public credit is not shaken by the menace of free silver. As regards the latter, there will soon be a test of the feelings of the investing public when the expected loan comes upon the market. This is to be offered first to popular subscription. If it is rapidly taken by the people, that fact will be pretty good evidence that the public does not consider the menace of Bryanism serious. If it is not taken in that way, but is thrown back upon a banking syndicate, the latter will take it with the risk attached to it and will charge something for that risk in the way of added interest. The view of the bankers is that, being a part of the nation, they must take pot-luck with the nation. They were opposed to a war with Spain on account of Cuba, but, being in it, they must and will sustain the Government, and will take their chances of Bryanism hereafter.

Now we come to the revenue measure as a bill of items. Beer and tobacco are good sources of income, and it is expected that the pending measure will obtain $33,000,000 from the former and $25,000,000 from the latter, including cigars, cigarettes, snuff, and the license tax on dealers. The stamp duties on legal instruments, stock transfers, bank checks, etc., are expected to yield $30,000,000, and this is not an extravagant estimate when we recall that thirty-two years ago the same duties yielded $15,000,000 from the Northern States alone. Stamp duties are to be imposed also on chewing-gum, mineral waters, domestic wines, and beverages not now taxed under the internal-revenue laws. It is not an extravagant estimate that $5,000,000 will be obtained from this source. Here we have a probable revenue of $93,000,000, one-half of which will be needed to cover the previous deficit (the Dingley deficit), the other half serving as a basis for loans. If the war should last more than one year, another tax bill would be imperatively demanded following the lines of the civil war period.

The last item in the revenue measure is the tonnage tax on foreign commerce, which has caused some unfavorable comment abroad. The existing tonnage tax is three cents per ton on each entry of vessels at our ports from countries in American waters, including Bermuda and the Hawaiian Islands, and six cents per ton for all others. It is coupled with a proviso that the President shall reduce the amount of the tax on vessels of other countries, so that it shall not exceed the amount which is levied on our ships in the ports of such other countries respectively. The proposed bill increases these taxes to eight cents per ton in the first class, and twenty cents in the second, and repeals the proviso which authorizes the scaling down of the tax to correspond with that of other countries. In other words, the proposed tonnage tax, instead of being a method of equalizing burdens on shipping between our own and foreign countries, is to be made a permanent revenue measure, and it is justified by Mr. Dingley on the ground that nine-tenths of the vessels in this trade are foreign, and that, during the war now before us, all or nearly all will be so. He says that this is the rate imposed by France, and that it is only a little greater than that imposed by Great Britain. He thinks that this is a favorable occasion for imposing an increased tonnage tax, and that it ought to be kept even after the war ends. In this we think that Mr. Dingley is entirely wrong. Instead of the present being a favorable time for imposing taxes on foreign vessels, it is the most unfavorable that could be imagined. If the tax in question were ever so desirable and defensible (and we are not condemning it on its merits), we ought to do nothing now to irritate neutral Powers. We want all the friends we can have. The amount derivable from this tonnage tax is only $2,500,000 at the outside, a contemptible sum at best, and not worth incurring enmity for at such a time as the present.

SOME SPANISH ILLUSIONS.

The Spanish Government has undoubtedly suffered many cruel self-deceptions in the course of its negotiations with the United States. Some of these it has practically confessed. It hoped great things from the European Powers, and was bitterly disappointed at getting only platonic expressions of sympathy. On the Pope's intervention Sagasta staked the very existence of his ministry, as it seemed, but nothing came of it except fresh humiliations and hopes frustrated. Yet, in spite of these successive disappointments, Spain seems now to be leaning upon other supports which will also prove broken reeds.

One of these is the expectation of an active and effective sympathy from the

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South American republics. Gen. Martinez Campos referred to this in the Spanish Senate the other day. Spain could count upon the good will, and something more, of 40,000,000 people in South America who still looked to her as the mother-country. Of course, there is something in this. In language and in race traditions a bond, and a strong bond, still exists between Spain and her ancient colonies. The smallest Spanish-American republic has its "Academia" in correspondence with the parent institution at Madrid. From the Spanish capital the Spanish New World still takes orders in matters literary—though it must be said that, as regards contemporary writers, the French have a greater vogue in South America than have the Spanish. But the same might almost be said of Spain itself. There are also, no doubt, wealthy Spaniards all through South America whose loyalty is unquestionable, and who have already put large gifts at the disposal of the country to which they are proud to own allegiance. But when this has been said, all has been said. From the South American governments as such, from the South American peoples as a whole, Spain can look only for indifference or actual dislike and hostility.

This is quite apart from the obvious interest of those countries to avoid offending the United States. They have unhealed grudges of their own against Spain. Their own struggles to free themselves from her sovereignty are not forgotten; and Spain did not make war on them more tenderly than she has done in Cuba. Moreover, she recognized their independence only in a slow and sullen fashion. It was not till after 1840, if we remember, that she formally recognized the independence of Mexico and sent her first minister to that country. Chili and Peru were actually at war with Spain a little more than thirty years ago, and Spain's bombardment of unprotected Valparaiso, against the protests of the foreign embassies, is not likely to win her very warm Chilian sympathy just now.

Nor should it be forgotten that the class of Spaniards to be found in the cities of Spanish America are not exactly of the kind to engage the affections of the people among whom they dwell. We cannot do better than cite on this point a message from Minister Romero's recent book on Mexico. He writes:

"The Spaniards are a money-making, wonderfully frugal race, since they have been battling with hard conditions at home for centuries. The Spaniard in Mexico is—as Richard Ford, who spent thirty years in the peninsula, and who was a close observer, depicts him—a hardy, temperate man, well fitted, under favorable conditions, to become a dominant influence.

"In Mexico, the energy of the Spaniard is remarkable. He is forceful of word and phrase, energetic in his movements, immensely vital, tremendously persistent, and wonderfully enduring. After thirty years behind a counter selling groceries, he retires, a man of fortune, not always large, but sufficient, and is still a man of force, and ready for undertakings demanding good brain-power and courage. They come over mere lads, from ten to fifteen, toil and moil, feed frugally and sleep hardly, and they become millionaires, bank directors, great mill-owners, farmers on a grand scale, hot-country planters, and monopolists, for the Spaniard is born with the 'Trust' idea; while his sons are too often dudes and spendthrifts."

Unless human nature is vastly different to the south of us from what we know it here, Spaniards of the sort described by Señor Romero are not fitted to make either themselves or their country loved by the natives. We have only to recall the fury of our Populists against bankers—especially against bankers whose names they cannot pronounce with their anti-Semitic tongues—to be sure that a kindred dislike of alien blood-suckers and cormorants would be encountered in Spanish America.

Another illusion which Spain seems to have been ardently cherishing is that she would reap a great advantage from being the most Catholic country in the world. This was to be an added tie with South America; this was to insure the French alliance; this was even to detach the Catholics of the United States. But what are we seeing? Our most outspoken friends across the sea just now are the Irish, Catholic to the core. The voluble members from Cork and Tipperary are fairly raining pro-American questions upon Mr. Balfour in the Commons, all the while with the broadest of winks over-ocean, as who should say, "D'ye mind our noble attichewd?" And as for the Catholics in this country, their readiness to serve in the war is not a whit behind that of the most fervent and resolving Methodist.

No one need think, however, that Spain's certain disillusionment in the respects mentioned will make her any less stubborn in the fight which is now upon her. Her blood is up, and she will do her best. If the stars in their courses seem to be fighting against her, she will but the more proudly declare, in the words of her own Calderón:

——"el hombre
Predomina en las estrellas."

THE SPOILS ON A CASH BASIS.

The revelations now making as to the sale of post-offices for cash by the Quay machine in Pennsylvania must not be overlooked through the engrossment of the public mind in news about the war. These disclosures constitute a most interesting and significant phase of the development of the spoils system in our politics.

On Tuesday of last week the Philadelphia *Press*, whose editor had just become Postmaster-General, made this brief but striking statement:

"The sale of post-office appointments in this State, in which some Congressmen have been concerned, has become an open scandal."

On Thursday night Mr. Wanamaker, speaking at West Chester, declared that, in some parts of the State, "post-offices are practically put up at a form of auction and knocked down to the political heeler who can pay the largest sum for the privilege of becoming postmaster, and who, at the same time, is capable of carrying the most votes for Quay"; pronounced it "a notorious fact, easily proven," that post-offices are offered for sale, and have been sold, in "at least two congressional districts"; and pointed out that "these offices are in districts whose members of Congress are Quay's warmest supporters, and they look to him to secure the offices for the men to whom they are sold." He then read the following letter:

"April 23, 1898.

"DEAR SIR: I have filed my application with the Postmaster-General for the post-office at T., but it is said that our Congressman is holding it for $3,000. Now, I do not think it right to buy the office, and have not the money to do so, and write, asking for your aid in the matter. Can you give me any, or suggest any course that will help me in securing it? If you can I will be greatly obliged. Yours, etc."

On Saturday the Philadelphia *Press* recurred to the matter, described the sale of post-office appointments to the highest bidder as having been "more or less of a scandal in some congressional districts of the State for nearly a year," and said that "this has been notorious in the Twentieth Congressional District, and in others many facts are known." The article in the *Press* revealed the identity of the town of "T.," and of "our Congressman" who was said to be holding its post-office for $3,000, by calling this sum "pretty high for a place that is little more than a railroad junction and had at the last census a population of but 4,705." Tyrone is the only town in Pennsylvania which had exactly 4,705 inhabitants at the last census, and it is little more than a railroad junction. It is in the Twentieth Congressional District, the representative of which is Josiah D. Hicks of Altoona, in the same county with Tyrone, a follower of Quay, who is now serving his third term.

The *Press* says that the significant part of this particular case is the personal participation of the Congressman, as the letter indicates. It adds that in some of the districts a different system is pursued: "The county bosses demand of the Congressman that their recommendations shall be listened to, and then they sell the offices for what they will bring, and the Congressman agrees to their choice." The *Press* deems it conceivable that under this system the Congressman may not know of the corruption for some time, but it rightly holds that "it certainly is impossible that he should not ultimately learn of it." It makes the further most encouraging statement that "it is most likely the whole scandal will get a full exposure

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in a very short time, and no one who is guilty can be saved, and no one not guilty will be involved."

The revelation that post-offices are sold for cash by Congressmen or the local backers of Congressmen, seems to be a great shock, even to Pennsylvanians, hardened as they have become to political corruption. Yet it is really the most natural thing in the world. It is simply the logical development of the spoils system. This system begins by treating office, not as a public trust, but as a partisan asset. In its first stage the post-office at Tyrone, Pa., is regarded as belonging to the Republican or the Democratic party, according as there is a Republican or a Democratic President at Washington, and to be run for the benefit of the party in power, whichever it may be. The second stage in the development of the system makes the Tyrone office an asset, not of the Republican or Democratic party as an organization, but of that faction in the dominant party which controls its machinery. In this stage the office is given for services in promoting the interests, not of the party, but of this faction in the party, and of the representative of this faction who controls the appointment; and it is to be run in the interest of this faction.

In each of these stages there is a virtual sale of the office. In the first case, it is given to the appointee in return for his payment to the party of work and influence in getting voters to the polls, carrying doubtful districts, etc. In the second case, it is given to him in return for his payment to the dominant faction of work and influence in enabling that faction to beat the other faction in the caucuses and thus to keep control of "the organization." In each of these two stages the bargain-and-sale principle is recognized as governing the appointment. In the third stage the bargain-and-sale principle only undergoes a change in terms. The man who seeks the Tyrone post-office now cannot get it by paying services in work and influence either to the Republican party or to the Congressman who represents the dominant faction of that party; he must make his payment in cash.

All three stages in the development of the spoils system to this extreme are immoral. People have become so habituated to the sale of appointments for either party service or factional service that it does not cause the shock produced by their sale for cash, but, when the matter is analyzed, it is obvious that the same principles govern in all three cases. The Congressmen who peddle offices for cash ought to be denounced, but the reform which is needed will not be achieved by stopping the passage of money from constituent to Representative. It must be recognized that the whole theory of treating the offices as spoils is utterly wrong, and that it is morally a matter of comparatively unimportant detail whether a man gets a public place in return for partisan services, factional work, or cash.

THE PROHIBITION PLEBISCITE IN CANADA.

The bill which has just passed its first reading in the Dominion Parliament to take a plébiscite throughout the whole of Canada upon the question of prohibitory liquor legislation, is of considerable interest, not only to the advocates of temperance legislation, but also to constitutional theorists. It is certainly somewhat of a new departure from a constitutional point of view, for the bill proposes to submit to the vote of those entitled to the Dominion franchise simply the question: "Are you in favor of the passing of an act prohibiting the importation, manufacture, or sale of spirits, wine, ale, beer, cider, and all other alcoholic liquors for use as beverages?" Canadian legislatures, it is true, are not debarred from delegating their functions, for, as the English Privy Council, which is the final Court of Appeal for the whole empire, has decided, they are not in the position of mere delegates or agents of the Imperial Parliament, but are possessed of authority as plenary and as ample within the limits prescribed by their Constitution act as that Parliament "in the plenitude of its power possessed and could bestow." Therefore, doubtless, the Dominion Parliament, or any other Canadian legislature, could introduce the Swiss referendum system at any time with respect to matters within their respective jurisdictions, by enacting that acts should not go into force until a popular vote had been taken.

But in the bill under discussion we have something very different from the referendum, under which the entire law after being passed by the Legislature is submitted to the vote of the people; thus placing the latter, as Prof. Dicey has pointed out, in a position analogous to that which is still in theory, and was in former times actually, the position of the British monarch, that, namely, of possessing a veto power. But in the present case the question whether they are in favor of prohibitory legislation is to be submitted to the people without any information as to whether it is to be prohibition with compensation to those at present engaged in the liquor business, or as to the means to be taken to make up the immediate loss of Dominion revenue, amounting, we understand, to some eight million dollars, or any other particulars of the legislation to be enacted.

However, the historical explanation of the bill, no doubt, is to be found in the local-option acts to which Canadians have been accustomed for many years, notably the Canada temperance act, popularly known as the "Scott act," which has been in force since 1878, and which provides for the prohibition of the retail sale of intoxicating liquors in any county or city in which a majority of the electors vote in favor of bringing the act into force. But there the provisions of the act are, of course, explicit, and, in voting for it, any city or county knows exactly the particulars of the legislation for which it is voting. It has, however, though still on the statute-book, fallen into great disfavor, and under the provision in it enabling a fresh vote to be taken every three years in any district which has adopted it, it has been now rendered inoperative everywhere, excepting in a few places in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

Nevertheless, there seems no doubt as to the present bill passing, unless, indeed, by reason of the vagueness of the proposed question to be submitted, the Senate, a majority of whose members belong to the Conservative Opposition, sees another opportunity of asserting itself with a prospect of popular approval, as it has done in the recent case of the Yukon Railway bill. And if the bill does pass, it is certain that there will be a very strenuous campaign and contest over the plébiscite, and a great probability that a majority of voters will answer the question in the affirmative, except in the provinces of Quebec and British Columbia.

In Quebec the Roman Catholic Church is, of course, overwhelmingly predominant, and there, as everywhere, its influence is, religious matters apart, against infringements of personal liberty; while in British Columbia the large mining element of the population is little likely to vote for prohibition. In the other provinces, however, where the united strength of the Presbyterian, Methodist, and Baptist denominations is in favor of such legislation, there is a great probability of the affirmative vote prevailing. And indeed the matter has been to some extent already tested in provincial plébiscites held in Manitoba, Prince Edward Island, Ontario, and Nova Scotia, between 1892 and 1894. The question then submited in each of these provinces was very similar to that now proposed, namely, "Are you in favor of the immediate prohibition by law of the importation, manufacture, and sale of intoxicating liquors as a beverage?" and in each case the vote cast was in favor of the affirmative by very substantial majorities, although the total vote polled was not a very large one. In these provincial plébiscites the electors were informed upon their voting papers that in voting "Yes" on the question they would be considered as expressing an opinion in favor of prohibition to the extent to which the Legislature of the province or the Parliament of Canada had jurisdiction, as might be determined by the court of final resort. Thereupon a sort of armistice between the temperance party and their opponents followed,

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pending the submission of a stated case, first to the Supreme Court of the Dominion and then to the judicial committee of the Privy Council, to determine precisely what the respective jurisdictions of the Dominion Parliament and the provincial legislatures were in the matter.

It may readily be believed that neither the Dominion nor provincial governments were sorry to have a reprieve from dealing with this troublesome question, in which legislation could not fail to alienate a large body of voters and disturb the party organizations. Indeed, the indefinite character of the question now proposed to be submitted to the electorate, although this is in accordance with the expressed desire of the powerful organization known as the "Dominion Alliance for the total suppression of the liquor traffic"—a federation of Canadian religious and temperance societies—is thought by many to be another example of the way in which governments in Canada have always fenced with this matter.

RENAN AND BERTHELOT.—II.

PARIS, April 15, 1898.

We left Renan in Italy. His first impressions have a surprising freshness, and are often interesting from an artistic point of view. I remember well having felt as he did in the Pantheon. "The Pantheon of Agrippa, one of the finest religious ideas of humanity, officially transformed into a church. This incomparable portico covered with pictures and indulgences revolts me." The portrait which he traces of the population of Rome would have to be very much changed now, since Rome has become the political capital of Italy. The prophecies which Renan made in 1849 have partly been verified: he announced the end of the temporal power, he perceived the effects of the French occupation and the presence of a French army (all the officers, he says, are Voltairians and democrats) in the midst of Italy. But he was chiefly occupied with the Rome of the past, with its monuments and ruins; and he describes them with much eloquence. In the midst of them, he is seized with the idea of a permanence which is in harmony with a continual transformation, and he anticipates that spiritual Rome will be transformed like material Rome:

"You cannot imagine how much modern Rome is composed of the fragments of old Rome. All the materials of the churches anterior to the sixteenth century are taken from the temples; the columns are all old; there has been very little marble imported in modern times. Everything you see in shops, all the furniture, chimney-pieces, etc., are old marbles taken from the catacombs, the cemeteries, the temples. This heredity of materials is one of the curious facts of this country. The singular Church of the Ara Cœli is entirely composed of the fragments of the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus. Its columns are those of the old temple, and the Romans themselves had taken them from the temple of Jupiter Olympius. Is it not so with religions? Construct with old materials new combinations; mix the old elements so that they will come out under a new form."

Writing some time after from Naples, Renan has very different impressions:

"I told you," he says, "that Rome made me understand for the first time the greatness of a religion which monopolizes the spiritual life of a people. I can tell you that Naples has made me understand for the first time the ridiculousness, the horribly bad taste of a degenerate religion, dishonored by a degraded people. You could never imagine, no, never, what religion is in Naples. God is as much unknown here as among the savages of Oceanica, whose religion is a mere belief in genii. There is no God for these people, there are only saints. And what are these saints? Not models of religion or morality; a kind of supernatural magicians, who can extricate you from an embarrassment, when you are sick or in difficulty. There are saints for thieves, and I have with my own eyes seen ex-votos in which the thief is represented as delivered by the saint. I cannot express to you the profound disgust which I experienced the first time I entered a church in Naples. It is no longer art, no longer ideality; it is the grossest sensualism."

Very different are his feelings in a visit made to the famous convent of Monte Cassino. There he feels a moral emotion. "If Sorrento and Posilipo, Baja and Miseno, could not diminish the sadness which was produced in my mind by the horrible degradation of this country, I doubt if the stern beauties of the Apennines would have found me more indulgent had I encountered here only coarse or stupid adepts of superannuated institutions." But at Monte Cassino he met with representatives of the best Italian intellect. He tells Berthelot the story of Father Tosti, a sort of Italian Lamennais, of Rosmini; he finds in the librarian's cell Strauss's 'Life of Jesus.' "They talk here of Hegel, of Kant, of George Sand, of Lamennais. Between us, my friend, the Fathers are philosophers like you and me; study has brought them to the point to which the modern mind tends perforce—to rationalism, to religion in spirit and in truth. . . . Garibaldi is the hero of the convent. [This was written in 1850.]"

Renan was not always a good prophet. I remember hearing him explain with much eloquence, at the beginning of the Italian war, that Italian unity was an empty dream. We see him defend the same idea in his letters:

"Centralization would be the death of Italy. Rome, Naples, Florence cannot be *chefs-lieux* of departments. It is well enough for Dijon, Bordeaux, etc., which have never lived. But Florence has lived; Florence would never accept that part. Give freedom to Italy, and Florence will secede, Siena will secede, Genoa will secede, Sicily will secede, Venice will secede . . . It is true that Italy has a common sentiment of hatred of foreigners, and even a vague sentiment of intellectual and moral unity. Is this enough to create a compact state? No, a thousand times no. Would it suffice for a confederacy of Italian republics? I do not think so. All these cities would snap at each other, and at the end of a year would call in against their rivals France or the Emperor."

These letters, written from Italy in 1850, show well the uncertainties of a flexible mind like Renan's; he likes to generalize, but he is often doubtful about his own generalizations; he confesses that "the future of Italy seems, after all, an enigma." His portrait of Pio Nono, written after an audience he had with him, together with two other Frenchmen, is very delicately touched in: "It is impossible to find a more perfect type of the Roman who never has been placed, by his studies or by his relations, outside of the circle of Roman life. In France such a man would be called weak, ordinary; this sort of provincial *bonhomie* saves it all, with the result that when you leave him, you feel contented and are in a kindly state of mind." Renan is very much struck by the provincialism of the people he sees. "In general, the intellectual development of the people in this country (I speak now of northern Tuscany) is almost *nil*." He finds even the Catholic sense blunted, except among the common people, who are instinctive artists. "A people wholly antique, creating its costumes with an inimitable grace, improvising a village decoration with an admirably pure taste, better able than you or I to distinguish a picture, a statue, a church of bad style; but a people absolutely strangers to any political or patriotic idea. Speak to this poor people of the independence of Italy? Why, they don't know what independence is; nor Italy." Here again you have one of those rash judgments, written, as the French say, *au courant de la plume*—very interesting, nevertheless, as they always contain a particle of truth.

In 1860 Renan made his journey to Syria, accompanying the Anglo-French expedition which had been sent there after the massacres of Christians in the Lebanon, and he had a mission from the Minister of Public Instruction. His devoted sister Henrietta accompanied him; she fell ill in Syria and died at Amshit. Her letters to Berthelot are among the best in the volume; they speak equally well for her intellect and for her heart. I do not know what is the real value of Renan's archæological researches in Syria. The chief interest of his letters lies in the descriptions which he gives of the Holy Land. While he was copying old inscriptions, he collected documents for his 'Life of Jesus' and the lives of the apostles. He saw in Syria the patriarch of the Maronites—"a charming type; a combination of Italian education with the fine and mild spirit of this race. What is essentially wanting in the Syrians is fixity in ideas and rectitude in judgment. Their facility in learning everything, especially languages, is much greater than ours, but they have not the persistence for great creations. And then the odd, subtle, absurd idea always comes to them first. They do not understand good sense. All this with a charm which has seduced the world." At Sour he finds himself in a centre of Mussulman fanaticism:

"A fanatical party, shut up in the mosque and the bazaar, reigns by menaces of death and fire, annihilates the Turkish power and maintains a wild hatred of anything that has not the frenzied spirit of Islam. How well one understands here what a misfortune Islamism has been, what germs of hatred and exclusivism it has spread in the world, how a frenzied monotheism is opposed to all science, all civil life, all large ideas. What Islamism has made of human life is hardly credible. The asceticism of the Middle Ages is nothing in comparison. Spain has never invented a religious terror coming near it. But nature remains delicious and splendid. Syria, from one end to the other, is a garden."

In a letter from Beirut, written after a journey to Palestine (September 12, 1861), he writes a few lines which give us the true key to his 'Life of Jesus':

"I employed my long days at Ghesir in writing my life of Jesus, such as I conceived it in Galilee and in the land of Tyre. In a week it will be finished; I have only to write the account of the last days. I have succeeded in giving to the whole an organic movement, which is so much wanting in the Gospels. I believe that this time people will have under their eyes living beings, and not those lifeless phantoms Jesus, Mary, Peter, etc., changed into abstract types. I have tried, as they do in the vibration of sonorous

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plates, to give the bow-stroke which ranges the grains of sand into natural waves. Have I succeeded? You will know. But I ask you not to say a word of this to anybody outside of our circle. This big thing in my portfolio is all my strength. It will come out in due time. Now that it is done, I care little for the Collège de France or for anything on earth."

In the year 1864 Renan visited Egypt, and we find some fine descriptions of the land in his letters. He learned in Syria of the publication of the famous Encyclical, which convulsed the Catholic world at the time; he predicted a schism which did not take place. "A national church in France," he said, "is impossible, and it is fortunate; for such a church would, in fact, be clumsier and narrower than the religious system which has existed in France for fifty years. A schism is therefore inevitable; I mean an inner schism. . . . There will be two factions of Catholics arrayed against each other; one mad with a reactionary spirit, the other entering the domain of change, Protestant in reality." We see no signs yet of such a division.

Renan had a genuine horror of Turkish rule. This is what he writes from Constantinople in 1869:

"Constantinople is certainly a marvel in its way. It is the city of the painter, of the picturesque. Its general views are unequalled in the world. But that is all; if you except Saint Sophia and one or two Byzantine remains, there is not one really fine building; nothing will bear analysis; the bad taste is extraordinary, everything made to satisfy an ephemeral fancy. Never have human meanness, folly, complacent nullity created a more adequate image of themselves. The Turkish world, with two or three exceptions, is absolutely stupid or dishonest. . . . This city appears to me like a city of monkeys, a sort of capital founded by the worthy Constantine for ignominy, intrigue, and stupidity."

The last part of the correspondence extends from 1870 to 1872; we find in it the expression of the emotions felt during the terrible days of the war with Germany, and afterwards during the Commune, the period of the government of M. Thiers and of Marshal MacMahon. The letters become shorter and shorter as Renan more and more suffered from the gout. The last were dictated by him, and he merely signed them. It is only just to say that he bore his own sufferings with stoicism; his interest in the affairs of France was paramount to the end. He was haunted with the fear of a new war with Germany. A few days before his death, he writes: "The most important act of our life is our death. We generally accomplish it in the most detestable circumstances. Our school, of which the essence is to need no illusion, has, I believe, for this great hour, quite special advantages." The last letter is written from Perros-Guirec (Côtes-du-Nord) in Brittany (in 1892). A few days after, Renan came back to Paris, where he died.

Correspondence.

DEFINITIONS AND PHRASES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On going over the letter about the expression *in our midst*, which you lately published, it has occurred to me that it may be usefully supplemented by adducing some considerations there pretermitted.

In a book to be mentioned below, it is implied that the illegitimacy of *in our midst* is clenched by asking, "Would any one say *in our middle?*" The inconclusiveness of this interrogatory argument I purpose to make evident.

With a few exceptions, so-called synonyms are, admittedly, only pseudo-synonyms. As a consequence, when, alternatively to periphrases, they are propounded in explanation of words, they very seldom indeed go beyond defining them approximately, though, in practice, they often serve acceptably as their substitutes. In order, however, that they may do so, much depends, generally, on their context. To a notable extent, in fact, it is by verbal collocation that conformity to idiom is determined. In illustration, many a vocable is circumstanced more or less like the adverb *any*. *He is not any better* is unexceptionable, whereas *it did not hurt me any* is a rank vulgarism. *In any degree*, for *any*, would answer in both the sentences.

To come to analogues of *in our midst: I request it in his behalf*, that is to say, "in his interest," "for his benefit," is faultless, though nobody would now employ *behalf*, except phraseologically, as one with "interest," "benefit." Again, though there are connections in which *sake* is inadmissible, *for my sake* and *for mercy's sake* represent established modes of speech. With *we consult his behalf* and *this sake is to be regarded* closely accord *the midst of the crowd was impenetrable*, once English, but no longer so.

Any one must feel that by *in our midst* he does not understand *in our middle*. *Midst* is, for one thing, vaguer than *middle*, which signifies, strictly, a point equidistant from extremities, and, popularly, also something of its adjacencies, lineal or other. Superficial etymologists, it is pertinent to notice, gratuitously assert that *midst* denotes "the very centre," speculating that the word is a superlative of *mid*. The better informed know it to be a contraction of *middes*, the genitive of the early English substantive *midde*, with the suffixion of an excrescent *t*, seen likewise in *against*, *amongst*, *betwixt*, *whilst*, the old *alient* (alien), *margent* (margin), *orphant*, *yeomantry*, the still dialectal *alongst* and *anenst*, the illiterate *wonst* (once), the standard *ancient*, *pageant*, *parchment*, *peasant*, *pheasant*, *tyrant*, and so on. It is the *middle*, not the *midst*, that is markedly or confinedly midmost.

And now let us turn to the compound *amidst*, of old *a-midde*, *in middes*, etc., meaning, verbatim, "in middle." In this there is the same spatial indefiniteness that attaches to *midst*, together with its connotation of environment, surrounding circumstances, density, or movement; the differentia of *middle*, with respect to *midst*, being restrictedness of circumscription, with hardly any other appreciable property. An acquaintance is espied *amidst* strangers; a voluptuary lives *amidst* luxury; a deer is brought to bay *amidst* a thicket; a cry is heard *amidst* the rushing wind. The equivalent of *in the midst of*, in these phrases, is not replaceable, precisely, by *in the middle of*. From these details it is manifest that, philologically, *in our midst*, if we look to the sense of *midst*, is defensible on grounds additional to the fact that, from the point of view of analogy, it is liable to no censure. Its rhetorical repute I am not at present concerned with.

The writer who has been quoted above, mistaking attempt for achievement, ventures the position, touching the phrase under discussion, that "its incorrectness has been exposed again and again." To make good his reprobation of it, he goes on to say, well-nigh literally copying Mr. G. P. Marsh, but not naming him:

"The possessive pronoun can properly be used only to indicate possession or appurtenance. The *midst* of a company or society is not a thing belonging or appurtenant to the company, or to the individuals composing it. It is a mere term of relation, of an adverbial, not of a substantive, character, and is an intensified form of expression for *among*." William Mathews, LL.D., *Words: their Use and Abuse*, p. 349.

Take *of their own accord, on my account, at her bidding, in their default, in your despite, its equal, by our leave, in his stead.* None of the possessive pronouns thus used are, according to Mr. Marsh and Dr. Mathews, used properly, unless *accord, account*, and the rest are "things belonging or appurtenant to" so and so; figuring in which capacity, they offer themselves as exceedingly nebulous entities, to ordinary apprehension. The field of possessive pronouns approaches, in amplitude, the possessive case, with its subjective and objective divisions.

Moreover, as regards the description given of *midst* in "the *midst* of a company," how can it, so collocated, be adverbial in character, as *while* is in *the while*, "meantime"? And how can it be, simultaneously, prepositional, or even quasi-prepositional, matching *side* in *this side the sea*, since it governs nothing? A confusing tintamarre of scientific terminology is not ratiocination. In *about the midst of the feast, from the midst of the city, through the midst of the sea*, and *in the midst of heaven*, is not *midst* substantival? Whether taken rightly, or taken wrongly, its character, there or elsewhere, makes nothing either for or against the idiomaticalness of *in our midst;* and so an end.

F. H.

Marlesford, England, April 19, 1898.

Notes.

Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole, not content with editing a variorum edition of the Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám, purposes getting out a delectable little pocket volume containing on opposite pages FitzGerald's version and a Latin translation of it made by Herbert Wilson Greene, Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford, and privately printed in 1893. Mr. Dole's reprint, for which permission has been cheerfully accorded both by Dr. Aldis Wright and by Mr. Greene, will also be private and limited to 950 copies (750 for this country). The Latin text will be in red. The binding will be a flexible green leather. Mr. Dole's address is Jamaica Plain, Mass.

William Ellis Jones, No. 5 South Twelfth Street, Richmond, invites subscriptions to a 'Word-Book of Virginia Folk-Speech,' compiled by Dr. B. W. Green of Warwick, chiefly from the "lower peninsula," but not exclusively. The appearance of the work depends upon the support promised.

So does that of the 'Vestry Book and Register of Bristol Parish, Va., 1720-1729,' with its register of births, baptisms, and deaths, which has been fully and scrupulously transcribed by Churchill Gibson Chamberlayne.

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Mr. Chamberlayne is his own publisher, and may be addressed at Richmond (P. O. Drawer 927).

M. F. Mansfield will publish immediately four volumes in a series, "The Rise of an Empire," by Sir Walter Besant: 'Canada,' by Howard A. Kennedy; 'India,' by D. C. Boulger; and 'South Africa,' by W. Basil Worsfold.

John Matthews, Mechlin Mansion, Brook Green, London, W., is preparing an 'American Armoury and Blue Book,' to include American families of European descent bearing, or entitled to bear, arms, as well as families descended from eminent personages in this country.

The Clarendon Press will soon publish a digest, by Sir Courtenay Ilbert, K.C.S.I., of the statute law relating to the government of India, with historical introduction and illustrative documents; and a new edition of Sir George Cornewall Lewis's 'Remarks on the Use and Abuse of Some Political Terms,' edited by Thomas Raleigh, Fellow of All Souls.

George N. Morang, Toronto, will issue on June 1 his midsummer annual, entitled 'Our Lady of the Sunshine,' with colored and other illustrations of Canadian scenery.

After fourteen years of unrivalled supremacy in its field, Mr. Louis Heilprin's 'Historical Reference Book' now passes to a fifth edition (Appletons). It is a three-fold utility in a single duodecimo volume of about 600 pages, consisting of "a chronological table of universal history; a chronological dictionary [and gazetteer] of universal history; a biographical dictionary [generally one-line]." The handiness of all this information is equalled by the accuracy of it, in which particular few similar works can challenge comparison with Mr. Heilprin's. The 'Reference Book' is now brought down to the present year, revised and extended in the supplement as elsewhere, for the "men of the time" are still increasing in number. Roentgen, Max Nordau, Paderewski, Hauptmann, Sudermann, Guerrini, Duse, D'Annunzio, are some of the new lights reflected in these pages. There is no private library which would not be the richer for being provided with the 'Reference Book,' and it ought to be in every school.

'Who's Who' (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan) celebrates its jubilee in a fiftieth yearly issue, the second since the new turn given to it by its enterprising editor, Mr. Douglas Sladen. This, in its main bulk, is a condensed 'Men of the Time,' often autobiographical, and hence better reading than ordinary, as where Mr. Israel Zangwill itemizes his "Recreations" thus: "All forms of locomotion except the bicycle." Each person's address and clubs (if any) are noted. Marriages, published works, etc., are other particulars convenient to ascertain readily. To last year's list colonial, artistic, and journalistic biographies have been freely added, and we are glad to find Dr. Murray of the great Dictionary "covered in." The rest of this annual consists of a great variety of tables, useful even when not complete (as, to take the weakest, Magazines, with its imperfect attempt to distinguish the American, and its omission of the *Atlantic* and the *Century*). "Peculiarly Pronounced Proper Names," "Rulers of Civilized Countries," "Chairs and Professors in the Universities" (alphabetic), "Navy," "Infantry Volunteers," "Societies, Royal, National, and Learned," "Our Great Public Schools and their Masters" (with cost of tuition and board), are a few of the medley. Altogether, we could not afford to miss this new aid to current knowledge.

If we must hark back to sixteenth-century examples in our Morris typographical experiments, why not choose the best of that age? Messrs. Copeland & Day's ornate edition of Shakspere's Sonnets, just issued in Boston, gives a table of first lines, but in sequence not alphabetical, though Petrarch's verse was early indexed in the only proper fashion. Then, as the Sonnets are to be read, and closely because of the close-packed conceits, why treat the broken lines without indention, as if prose? Mr. Goodhue's initials not seldom almost compel this; but then that only proves that the design was not adapted to the font. Again and again, in fact, there is either no space between the words in these broken lines, or but the thinnest hair-spacing. The total result may be elegant black and white, but it is not good book-making, to our mind.

The Harpers reprint in book form the late George Du Maurier's articles on 'Social Pictorial Satire' which appeared recently in their magazine. Mr. Du Maurier talks lightly and gracefully of Leech, of Keene, and of himself, placing Leech first as social satirist, Keene first as artist, and leaving his own place to be determined by others. We Americans are sufficiently alien to take the "foreign" point of view, and to prefer Keene's technical mastery to Leech's veracity to English life and feeling, which we are not so well able to appreciate. Probably most of us of this generation love Du Maurier himself better than either. His range was certainly less than Leech's, and his technical power somewhat less than Keene's, while still very considerable; but he had more charm and more sense of beauty than either of the others, and his subjects are less merely English and more universal, for "good society" is much alike everywhere. The charm of style, the well-executed and, for the most part, well-chosen illustrations, and the attractive printing and get-up, make a pleasing volume, though it contains little of information and makes no pretence to serious criticism.

Señor Matias Romero's 'Geographical and Statistical Notes on Mexico' (Putnams) is a very gratifying addition to books of ready reference. Its full and up-to-date statistics of Mexican trade and finance, agricultural and mineral resources and production, railways, banking, schools and colleges, with much other matter of great interest, make his volume one to be consulted by all who would have the latest and most trustworthy figures. Minister Romero writes remarkably good English, though here and there the Spanish idiom breaks through—as where he refers to the "regularly correct" Mexican census. What he means by "regularly" (*regularmente*) is clear from his intimation that the census may be 2,500,000 wide of the real population.

Those who would learn how a few workingmen, with no resources save good sense and determination, founded what is now the greatest coöperative store in the world, will be interested in Mr. George J. Holyoake's 'Jubilee History of the Leeds Industrial Cooperative Store.' In 1897, this store completed its fiftieth year, and Mr. Holyoake was with great propriety selected as its historian. "I knew coöperation," he says, "when it was born. I stood by its cradle. In every journal, newspaper, and review with which I was connected, I defended it in its infancy, when no one thought it would live. For years I was its sole friend and representative in the press." Certainly Mr. Holyoake may triumph in the success of an institution which now has eighty branches, and numbers 37,000 members, and which has throughout been managed on enlightened principles. "It stands next to Rochdale as the foremost English coöperative association, and surpasses it in its valiant conflicts, its organization, its marvellous gains, and vast army of members who gather around its standard-bearers."

We have received from the Macmillan Company two more volumes of Prof. L. H. Bailey's 'Garden-Craft Series,' which may be recommended on a-priori grounds. The volume entitled 'The Pruning Book' is necessarily somewhat technical, but its directions are clear and its illustrations apt. The other volume, 'Garden-making,' as its name indicates, is of the widest interest, and every one who possesses a square rod of land will find here suggestions for its improvement which will commend themselves to his judgment and stimulate his enthusiasm.

Among recent French books of reference may be mentioned Henry Carnoy's 'Dictionnaire Biographique des Hommes du Nord' (Paris: Lechevalier), put together on a hand-to-mouth plan not unknown in this country, by which the notices succeed each other in complete disorder, and have to be sought, not alphabetically, but by means of an index. For one section of France this work is very comprehensive, filling 272 quarto pages in double columns. The Abbé Chevin's 'Dictionnaire Latin-Français des Noms Propres de Lieux ayant une certaine Notoriété' (Paris: Retaux), has been compiled chiefly from an ecclesiastical and monastic point of view. Its usefulness would have been much increased by a corresponding French-Latin vocabulary.

C. Benoist's articles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, resulting from his observations in Spain, made expressly for that periodical, have been published in book form, under the title, 'L'Espagne, Cuba, et les États-Unis' (Paris: Perrin). They possess still some interest as forecast of our present troubles, and anticipate the annexation of Cuba to the United States in spite of the fact that the insurgents are not aiming for that, and in spite of our discredited protestations that our wishes are identical with those of the insurgents. The Cuban question the author judges to be the Eastern question of the New World.

The latest instalment of Hatzfeld's 'Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française' (Paris: Ch. Delagrave) carries this valuable work to *proposition*. Compact as the articles are, they are very good reading, witness *prendre* and *prôner*, in which the extensions of meaning are noticeable.

The eight essays by M. de Vogüé collected under the title 'Histoire et Poésie' (Paris: Colin) are all serious, full of thought, and written in elegant style—a matter of course. The blending of the real with the ideal in the first two ("Au Mont-Cassin," "À Ravenne") produces the effect of a revery arising under the direct influence of solemn surroundings. Most of the other studies ("Catherine Sforza," "Le Cardinal d'Ossat," "Le Moyen Âge," "J.-J. Rousseau," "La Renaissance Latine"), are suggested by

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books published in the course of the last fifteen years. There is no preface, and in consequence no mention of the fact that everything in the volume has heretofore appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The article on the Middle Ages contains one of the wittiest thrusts at the philologists that have been delivered of late years. The study of Jean-Jacques Rousseau brings out as it deserves the fact that his influence has been far deeper and more lasting than that of the man who filled the eighteenth century with his personality. That on Defoe's masterpiece is none the less enjoyable for the suggestion of racial jealousy it betrays. The author is one of the numerous Frenchmen who are apt to consider the Anglo-Saxon incapable of delicate and subtle taste, but he recognizes in him the power of triumphing over obstacles and reaching the end he has set his heart on attaining.

Following the new list for 1897 of the "best fifty books for a village library," we read in the *Library Journal* for April Mr. Dewey's announcement that the New York State Library will hereafter print the list as an annotated bibliography bulletin as soon as practicable after January 1. More important still is the sensible conclusion: "We shall no longer be guided simply by the number of votes [of librarians] cast for each book, but shall give due weight to the ability of each to pass judgment, and make up the list in the way to give the best average selection."

The *American Naturalist* (Ginn & Co.) for March is notable for seven articles on Agassiz, by as many hands (including several of his first pupils), in commemoration of that naturalist's beginning, his instruction at Harvard in March, 1848, which began "a new era in zoölogical science in America." Prof. Packard, who discusses his philosophical views, recalls a conversation at Penikese in 1873, when Agassiz declared: "I should have been a great fellow for evolution if it had not been for the breaks in the palæontological record."

The third number of volume i. of the *American Journal of Archæology* (Macmillan) is wholly given over to papers emanating from the Cretan expedition, Prof. Halbherr continuing his illustrated account of epigraphical researches in Gortyna, and adding a notice of some interesting Cretan sculpture in the museum at Candia. A chapter on a Mycenæan vase in connection with geometric vases in the same museum, by P. Orsi, and two papers on some curious Roman busts there and a statue of an Asclepiad from Gortyna, by L. Mariani, are likewise well figured in text and plates.

Lovers of "Lewis Carroll" will find in the May number of the *Strand Magazine* an interesting series of portraits from early youth, and a sympathetic sketch of his life by Beatrice Hatch, still further illustrated with facsimiles of Mr. Dodgson's MS. and drawings, and copies of his photographs of children in costume.

The "Klondike number" is the sub-title of the *National Geographic Magazine* for April, which contains much valuable information, chiefly by experts, upon Alaska and the goldfields of the Yukon. The most important article is that by Mr. S. F. Emmons of the Geological Survey, in which he describes the geographical features of the country, the principal routes into the interior, and the character and distribution of its mineral resources. Gen. Greely treats of its climatic conditions; Senator Perkins of California describes the civil government; Dr. W. H. Evans shows the conditions and possibilities of agriculture, which he believes could be "extended so as to supply local demands for many products"; and Mr. E. W. Nelson contributes some notes on the wild fowl and game animals of Alaska. Mr. W. H. Dall calls attention to the difficulties of transportation on the Yukon—the only practical route for food-supplies to the mining districts—and says that, while only seven trips were made by steamers from the sea-coast to Dawson last season, thirty-four trips may be made under favorable circumstances this season. This means, however, less than "half the number [of loads of provisions] required to keep the assumed influx of people on a next-to-starvation basis through the winter of 1898-'99."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for April opens with the suggestive paper on the material growth and present condition of the United States, read by Mr. Henry Gannett at the Toronto meeting of the British Association. It is illustrated by numerous diagrams showing in a graphic manner the increase of the population and its divisions by race, birthplace, and occupations, the industries, manufactures, mineral products, transportation and commerce of the country. Its wealth at the first estimate in 1850 was placed at a little over $7,000,000,000, or about $300 *per caput*, in 1890 at $63,000,000,000, or over $1,000 *per caput*. This is followed by a lively description of the difficulties of a journey along a Shan road in Upper Burmah.

The accounts of three cruises to Novaya Zemlya and Spitsbergen occupy the first place in the *Geographical Journal* for April. They are followed by Mr. H. S. H. Cavendish's lively description of his adventurous journey through Somaliland and around Lake Rudolf. A part of the region traversed had been unexplored, and in it he came upon a lake some twenty-five miles long whose water, "near to the north end, where a smouldering volcano was situated, was just as hot as one would like to wash one's hands in." To the south of Lake Stefanie he found coal in large quantities—a valuable discovery in tropical Africa. This number also contains the conclusion of Dr. Sven Hedin's account of his crossing the plateaux of Northern Tibet, and a report of the Geographical Society's Antarctic meeting.

The latest volume of Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society contains three contributions of very solid merit. Prof. Jameson's "Political Uses of the Word Convention" we have already praised in another connection. Mr. Franklin's succinct "Historical Study of the Powers and Duties of the Presidency in Yale College," and Mr. Wilberforce Eames's careful historical and bibliographical survey of "Early New England Catechisms," are both the fruit of much labor and excellent for ready reference.

To be remarked in the current Proceedings of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin (December meeting, 1897) are a very sensible and suggestive paper, "How Germans become Americans," by Ernest Bruncken; a bibliographical history of the two Wisconsin constitutional conventions, with annotated lists of the delegates; and a sketch of the Rev. Ichabod Codding, an early and devoted abolitionist, by his widow, which was worth writing and printing.

War, which has been called a school for learning geography, also has some lessons in national history and character. Greater knowledge of Spain might have hindered us from our present folly, or at least saved us from some illusions about our adversary. Whether we shall now be curious—or have time to be curious—about Spain, remains to be seen. Mr. W. E. Foster, of the Providence Public Library, assuming that his patrons will (or should), has devoted to Spain his Reference List, No. 55, in his Monthly Bulletin for March.

All hitherto available maps of Cuba must now yield to the military map prepared in the War Department, Adjutant-General's Office, from the latest official sources, and beautifully executed in four sheets by Julius Bien & Co. of this city. The date, 1897, is significant. The scale is one inch to eight miles. Banks and shoals are indicated, but there are no soundings. Roads of all kinds, including projected railroads, are laid down. The topography is more or less definitely shown. The multitude of settlements is the striking feature of the map, petty as many of them must be.

Luzac & Co., No. 46 Great Russell Street, London, have acquired the Chinese library of the late Prof. James Legge, and are preparing a catalogue of it to be sent on application, their desire being to sell it *en bloc*. It comprises upwards of 2,000 volumes, many rare and some in series of eight to sixty-six.

As is well known, the students of Radcliffe College, Cambridge, have no dormitory or hall of residence, and the need of one for a portion at least of the students in attendance, or who might be attracted by it, has become so manifest that a movement is on foot to erect it by subscription. It is intended to provide for not more than twenty-five students, so that the scheme is only supplementary to existing conditions of life in scattered families. The sum of $50,000 is sought, and any contributions to it on the part of friends of the college or of the higher education generally may be sent to the Treasurer, Miss Leslie White Hopkinson, No. 22 Craigie Street.

From circulars emanating from the University of Geneva we learn that the vacation schools in modern French, already described in these columns by Mr. William Henry Bishop, will, for the coming summer, open on July 16; and autumn, October 1. Each course will have its conference for the correction of written work, its conversation groups, its pleasant song section, its lectures on special subjects in science, history, or literature. Admission is to matriculated students in a university, and to persons possessing a university degree or teachers in a public school (women included). Information in detail concerning the programme, lodgings, etc., can be had by addressing M. le Secrétaire-Caissier de l'Université de Genève.

The University of Grenoble, too, sends us its prospectus, its *cours de vacances* opening July 1 and closing September 30, unless prolonged to October 30 on request. Text-books will be loaned gratuitously. Particulars may be had of the Secrétariat de l'Académie, Rue Lesdiguières, 24. We perceive no restriction on the "jeunes gens" whose presence is desired. As at Geneva, they will be assisted to suitable lodgings.

—The May *Century* has a good illustrated article on "Railway Crossings in Europe and America," by Franklin B. Locke. This is

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the country of grade-crossings and grade-crossing accidents. On the latter point the statistics given are curious. When railways were first constructed in the United States little attempt was made to protect the ordinary crossing. The familiar gate, or bar, still seen everywhere, made its appearance, while in some places flagmen and bells were resorted to; in others the notice "Look out for the Locomotive," etc., was considered sufficient. In Massachusetts it seems that there are between twenty-one and twenty-two hundred grade-crossings, of which about one-half are "protected"; yet the fatalities at these are "nearly half of all the casualties occurring at both protected and unprotected crossings." It is generally recognized now that the condition of the crossings in this country is full of unending danger, and we are gradually on the way to a separation of highways from railways at points where they intersect. In course of time, even the amusing sport of "walking on the track," once so common among American children, will be stopped. In Germany such amusements are contrary to law, and the law is rigidly enforced. It is not generally known that grade-crossings are an enormous hindrance to efficient railway service. We run trains at as high a speed as any in the world; but "if we compare the average time of the twenty-six fastest trains to and from New York, on all of its twenty-six important roads, we get only about forty miles an hour, against the average . . . of forty-six miles an hour for fifty-four trains running to and from London." Mr. A. D. White contributes an article on "A Statesman of Russia," with what looks as if it must be a good portrait. The statesman in question is Constantine Pobedonostzeff, the "Proctor-General of the Most Holy Synod," otherwise known as "the Torquemada of the nineteenth century." Mr. White, who had many interviews with him, found him an agreeable man, fond of reading Hawthorne, Emerson, and Lowell, and at the same time a tremendous reactionary. His "views" are those of Metternich, adapted to the present day, and, of course, he looks at everything as a Russian, objecting to any improvement in the wretched street conveyances in St. Petersburg because they are thoroughly national. Mr. White, on the strength of several personal interviews, acquits him of being a hypocrite, but how he knows, he does not say. Pobedonostzeff's smile is described as being "a gentle, kindly smile," with nothing "ghastly or cruel" in it; but in a Torquemada would not such a smile smack of hypocrisy?

—"East Side Considerations," by E. S. Martin, and "Awakened Russia," by Julian Ralph, are two leading illustrated articles in *Harper's*. The former deals with a part of New York formerly little known to the well-to-do, but now a scene of much devoted philanthropic work, which, having begun with the cleaning out of the "Five Points," is now producing parish houses, and parks, and university settlements, and generally a higher standard of living among the poor. It is not like the East End of London, for it is not English, and it has also the genuine New York transitoriness. As in all such quarters, dirt is described as one great enemy of improvement. When cleanliness becomes not merely the luxury of the rich, but the necessity of the poor, then general self-respect will have been attained. Mr. Julian Ralph has a good deal to say about Russia, and the curious changes now going on there, but his explanation of the attitude of the Government towards the Armenian massacres will hardly bear examination. It is that Russia has a great number of Armenians within her own borders, and therefore could not "permit the Armenian in Turkey to better his condition so as to have it envied by the Armenian in Russia." What he means is that Russia could not be expected to approve of Armenian reforms; but is the alternative of reform always massacre? It is, no doubt, so considered by many a pious Mohammedan, but is that the view of Mr. Ralph? He gives a by no means clear account of the great Russian transcontinental railway, which, according to "all authorities," is to be a "perfectly modern railway, equipped not only with sleeping and dining-cars" but even with a "church car" for emergencies, yet is said in places to be so hastily built that "the ties are being merely laid down on the grass." There is nothing in the article to show that the "awakening" of Russia means a new policy of the "open door"; a Russia of railroads and telegraphs can hardly be for ever the Russia of the past, but the railroad now under construction is chiefly a very long military road.

—In the *Atlantic Monthly* for May, ex-Secretary Olney's discussion of the "International Isolation of the United States" is the leading article. To this we have already paid attention on one side, but we may further remark that the address (originally delivered at Sanders Theatre, Harvard University) confounds two different kinds of isolation—that recommended by Washington in his farewell address, and that sort of isolation represented by high tariffs, anti-Chinese and anti-immigration laws. There is no evidence that Washington was in favor of the Dingley tariff, nor of keeping Chinamen out of the country, nor of requiring immigrants to read twenty-five words of the Constitution of the United States. What Washington warned the country against was a policy of connection with European "politics" and "permanent alliances." (These are his own terms.) On the other hand, the extension of our "commercial relations" was at the same time strongly advocated by him. Mr. Olney seems to think that we have outgrown the stage of existence for which Washington's policy was suited, and that it is high time for something finer and nobler; but he shrinks from saying precisely what it is to be. He squints at an alliance with England, but expressly declares that "it will not follow that formal alliances . . . will soon or often be found expedient"; he writes nearly a page about the Berlin (Congo) Act, without telling us what he would have. On the whole, he is opposed to too much "isolation." Is any one afraid to echo the sentiment? Prof. Münsterberg continues his articles on Psychology, but in "Psychology and the Real Life" he gets beyond our depth. This, however, is clearly our own fault; what he says about the "real life" is not meant for everybody. Stopping short at his positive psychology, the paper is a valuable explanation of the present position of that science, and to any one having even a superficial acquaintance with the subject, most entertaining. Is there anything new under the sun? "To doubt that anything at all exists is absurd, as such a thought shows already that at least thoughts exist," is surely the latest paraphrase of "cogito, ergo sum." There is something in the article for everybody, from the hardened sceptic and positivist to the seer who possesses the key to the absolute in the limited and the infinite in the finite. If any one can read J. T. Morse, jr.'s summary of "The Dreyfus and Zola Trials" without a longing to fit out a filibustering release expedition to the Isle du Diable, he may be sure that he is no gentleman; if, on the other hand, he is fired with this wild and wholly illegal idea, he may, by reading the paper on "The Evolution of the Gentleman," by S. M. Crothers, in the same number of the magazine, gain some insight into the genesis of feelings which do him credit.

—In *Scribner's*, "Undergraduate Life at Wellesley" is the subject of an illustrated article by Abbe Carter Goodloe. Among other things, it gives an account of a new exercise which promises much entertainment and instruction for young college women. It consists of a representation of a set debate in the House of Commons, given under the direction of the Department of Constitutional History. The subject of debate is some real question in English politics. Last year it was on the motion of Mr. Burns to abolish the House of Lords; one young lady taking the part of Mr. Balfour, another that of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, another that of Mr. Labouchere, another that of Mr. Chamberlain, and so on. "The leader of the House was as imposing as it was possible for a very much frightened young girl in a white wig and black gown to be; and the *mise en scène* was excellent, the party in power being very properly on her right, the opposition on her left, while the Irish Nationalists and the Liberals", (apparently at Wellesley a fourth party) "sat and stood and cheered and groaned below the gangway." A widespread knowledge among women of the rules which govern the procedure of deliberative bodies would add a novel feature to their equipment for life; it is a branch of learning the general principle of which may be mastered very easily. In domestic life, feminine dialectics are usually different from masculine, but which system is the most successful has, we believe, never been settled. If women, in addition to their present resources, are to be provided with those hitherto monopolized by men, they will have great advantages. He would be a bold man who should attempt to argue with a woman having the right to choose between the system of Mrs. Caudle and that of Cushing's Manual. That the emergency may arise is apparent from numerous recent manuals by women, *e. g.*, Mrs. Shattuck's Boston 'Manual of Parliamentary Law' and her 'Advanced Rules for Large Assemblies' (now in press), not to mention such a straw as the little pocket folder, 'Parliamentary Diagram,' by Mary Urquhart-Lee, which has just been published in Chicago.

—Although most intelligent people recognize bacteria as agents intimately affecting human life, a clear knowledge of their character is not yet popularized. And it is not too much to say that even the scientists who devote themselves to a study of them are developing the horizon more rapidly than they can differentiate all that it includes. For instance, that widespread and serious disease, typhoid fever, is recognized as bacterial, and the *bacillus typhosus* is commonly regarded as the specific cause. It is the contamination of food and drink with this organism that completes the equation of cause and consequence. But to demon-

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strate that bacillus out of the body, after the earlier stages of the disease, is most difficult; and while logically it should be found abundantly in the polluted water, very expert observers often fail in the search. Consequently, a considerable school believes that another bacillus *(coli communis)*, which ordinarily is innocent, is convertible into the *typhosus* under conditions not yet understood; another, that *typhosus* acquires its virulence only after cultivation in the human body; and the Swiss health officers stoutly maintain that the typhoid-fever cause is generated in water contaminated by the droppings of animals and free from human pollution, pointing to the disease as found in the higher Alps. There are conditions in this country, especially in the Rocky Mountains, to support this view. Notwithstanding that the great epidemics are those where the water has been fouled by a preceding well-marked case or cases, the possibility of a change of character, if not of morphology, by environment is theoretically good, and those who believe that virulence may be diminished in pathogenetic or be grafted upon innocuous bacteria, are increasing. We are led into this train by a most admirable 'Manual of Bacteriology,' by Drs. Muir and Ritchie (Macmillan). Not that these authors countenance the transformation of either of the two bacteria that we have cited into the other. They distinctly affirm that "there is no evidence that the one organism ever passes into the other." And this is true, for evidence of that kind is most difficult to reach. They admit that variations may occur, but explain that "variation as observed consists largely in a tendency in a bacterium to lose properties ordinarily possessed. Practically no case of a bacterium acquiring new properties has been observed." It is very proper that a text-book should be conservative and not yield to every wind of doctrine. Nevertheless, we believe that variability may be a feature of these living cells, as in higher orders. The manual is neither prolix nor cramped in matter or style, but is sufficient and clear and moves with an even pace. It may be received with confidence by any student seeking a knowledge of the principles of germ life and of the methods to observe it.

—Ramabai, born in 1858, a Hindu widow of high class and culture, early founded in Poona an association to encourage female education and discourage child marriage. Feeling need of better training herself, she made her way to England in 1883, became there a professor of Sanskrit and embraced Christianity, but found English ears too conservative or incredulous for harkening to her appeals. So, after learning English, she joined her cousin Joshee in Philadelphia, who graduated at the Women's Medical College there in 1886. She became well acquainted with kindergartens and all the American school system. Personal interviews, her book on 'The High-Caste Hindu Woman,' and her travels westward even to the Pacific Coast, resulted in the formation of a humanitarian association with Edward E. Hale and Phillips Brooks at its head. Leaders in all Christian denominations, as well as Jews, joined with these two men in responding to the appeals of Ramabai in behalf of a much-injured class, which she convinced them could be effectually relieved, elevated, and sometimes Christianized. So inspiring was the prospect that all funds called for were raised. In a work published in 1888, Ramabai computed that she should need about $15,000 to fully establish her school, and $5,000 annually afterward during each year of the ten through which she wished that pledges for its support should be given. Six years after leaving home, Ramabai stood again in Bombay, and within six weeks opened a school there early in 1889. Upon this establishment and its country annex Mukti, near Poona, the association has laid out $91,500, largely in a permanent plant —school-buildings, dormitories, etc.—now worth $50,000. Three hundred and fifty child widows have passed through its undenominational course. Fourteen have been trained as teachers, eight as nurses, seven as missionary assistants; ten have homes of their own; none of them married under twenty-one. The period of pledges has now expired. Bishop Brooks, Miss Willard, and many others who made them are dead, but there must be some to carry on their work. Ramabai, now forty, seems better fitted than ever for her merciful mission to her sex. "She hath done what she could."

JENKS'S LAW AND POLITICS IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

Law and Politics in the Middle Ages. By Edward Jenks, M.A., Reader in English Law in the University of Oxford. London: John Murray; New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1898. xiii and 352 pp.

Mr. Jenks gracefully records his obligations to Prof. Maitland, and a glance at the 'Law and Politics of the Middle Ages' shows that his book is an excellent piece of work produced by a student in the school of which Prof. Maitland is the acknowledged head. The true aim of this school is to trace out the history, and especially the early history, of laws and institutions, and of the ideas to which laws and institutions owe their origin; and Mr. Jenks's treatise is a bold and in many respects successful attempt to explain the development of legal and political conceptions during the Middle Ages—that is, speaking very broadly, from the time when Rome ceased to rule the Western world to somewhere about the period of the Reformation. The book is the work of a thoroughly trained English lawyer, who combines a practical knowledge of the laws of his own country with a keen interest in speculations as to the development of legal ideas, such, for example, as the idea of "the State," of "property," of possession, of contract, and the like. The work is so admirable a specimen of its class that its appearance gives a good occasion for considering what is the real worth and the true interest of the whole body of writings to which it belongs. This is a point on which there exists some confusion in the minds both of writers and of readers, and which, therefore, repays examination.

Mr. Jenks's book may be placed together with Pollock and Maitland's 'History of English Law' and with Maitland's recent 'Lectures on Township and Borough.' These are alike concerned with the origins of legal institutions; all of them may, therefore, be placed among the legal literature of England; they are each and all of them works which any lawyer who takes a generous and liberal interest in his science may study with interest. But Mr. Jenks's treatise (and the same remark applies to those with which we have coupled its name) is in reality not a contribution to our knowledge of law, but a contribution to our knowledge of history. His speculations, for example, are in themselves most interesting, but it is a mistake to suppose—and it is an error to which students are liable—that his theories, even when they touch more or less directly upon English law, can be of material help towards attaining a knowledge of the law of England, or indeed of the law of any definite country.

Let us, for the sake of illustrating this point, confine our attention to English law. The immediate object of any Englishman who wishes to become a good lawyer is to understand and then place in their due logical order all the principles enforced by English courts. He who has achieved this, if the achievement be possible, and who has also so thoroughly mastered these principles as to see their bearing upon all the combinations of facts—that is, on all the cases which may actually arise or which may be suggested by the ingenuity of theorists—has become a perfect English lawyer. Whether, under the present condition of the world and of law, such a complete master of English law can ever in fact exist, may be open to some doubt. We may suppose, however, that in every generation one or two men, endowed with very special genius as well as with indomitable industry, make a near approach to that complete mastery of law which every serious student at the opening of his career proposes to himself as an ideal. Now it is obvious that any such master of the law of England as is here imagined could not be indifferent to certain aspects of legal history; he could not understand the existing law, for example, of agency, unless he had traced a good way back the steps by which the rules governing the relation between a principal, a third party, and an agent have grown up; it is in strictness impossible that he should understand the law of real property without a considerable knowledge of the historical development of this branch of law. But, for all this, such a perfect lawyer will require but very little of the sort of knowledge supplied him by theorists whose main concern is the origin of ideas and institutions. When once the existence of a rule of law is ascertained, this rule is for a lawyer an ultimate fact, and the question how it originated is of little importance, while the inquiry what was the state of mind of the men who originally established the rule, or what were the mental perplexities or confusions which may account for its establishment, is, or at any rate may be, to a lawyer, of no importance whatever.

That this is so is patent in regard to enacted or codified law. The merit or demerit of a code is that it puts an end to the practical importance of the historical study of law. The latent hostility between codifiers and historians of law is no mere accident; but what is true of codified law is at bottom true of the rules of judge-made law, from the moment that they have become absolutely established—that is, from the moment they have become part of the law of the land. Take, for example, the law of contract. It is of importance for a lawyer to know what is meant by a contract—that is, by a legally binding agreement. It is of primary importance for an English lawyer to know what are, under English law, the constituents of a legally binding agreement. But it is of no importance, though it may be of considerable interest, for him to understand that, as Mr. Jenks and others have

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amply demonstrated, there have been periods of the world's history in which men found it impossible to master the conception of a promise, an agreement, or a contract. Thus, to illustrate our meaning by another example, it is essential for an English lawyer to understand what is meant by a "consideration," and to grasp fully and follow out to all its consequences the principle that a promise for which there is no consideration is legally void; but it is of no importance whatever, from a merely legal point of view, that he should study the historical growth of the very curious doctrine that a promise which is gratuitous is in general not legally binding. Any one who has looked into the subject at all knows that writers of learning and intelligence have given different answers to the problem, How did the necessity for a consideration for the validity of a promise become part of the law of England? But every one also knows that the answer to this problem is to an English lawyer of no practical importance. The dogma that a gratuitous promise is invalid is now part of the law of England. Debates on the method by which this legal dogma has been developed cannot shake its authority. They are of intellectual interest, but possess no legal importance.

Take, again, Mr. Jenks's original and, if somewhat bold, yet most suggestive speculations as to the relation between the clan and the state. Let us assume that the truth of his conclusions may by further research be absolutely established. Still, his doctrines, however sound, will not affect a single rule of constitutional law in England or in any other country. To this criticism our author has at his command a complete reply. "I wrote," he may answer, "not as a constitutionalist, but as an historian." The conclusiveness of this retort is undeniable, but it is in effect a mere statement that a treatise on the origin of legal institutions is a contribution to our knowledge not of law but of history. It is the knowledge of history far more than the understanding of law which is being promoted by the historical school of lawyers. They have brought to light, not to say revealed, a forgotten aspect of human development. Politics, religion, art, and law are (if each word be taken in its widest sense) names for four different sides of the progress of mankind; taken together, they roughly cover the whole field of history. But historians for the most part have strangely overlooked the obvious fact that the laws of a nation at any given moment represent the conceptions by which it is governed. In the one case, indeed, of Rome, the importance of law forces itself into notice; to rule the world, and to rule it by establishing the supremacy of legal justice, was the one great achievement of Roman genius. Yet even as regards Rome it is only in comparatively recent times that men have realized the extent to which Roman law at once explains and gives a meaning to the history of Rome. Next to Rome, England is the country whose annals are most closely connected with its laws. Yet historians who have explored with care the minutest details of English party government have failed to grasp the full significance of English law and of English conceptions of justice. Macaulay was essentially a lawyer. His most permanent and his most original, if not his most brilliant, work is embodied in the Indian Penal Code; but his intense interest in Parliamentary conflicts seems to have diverted his attention from the mass even of Parliamentary legislation, and to have prevented his ever realizing either the singularity or the importance of the judicial legislation which has built up the greater and by far the best part of English law. His picture of the reign of Charles II. contains either no reference at all, or certainly no marked reference, to the passing of the habeas-corpus act, though Fox had already designated the Restoration as a period of bad government but good legislation; and nowhere throughout Macaulay's History or his Essays will there be found an attempt to explain—what he could have explained with greater lucidity than any other English man of letters—the process by which English courts, while deciding individual cases, in reality create new law. Freeman was from some points of view a disciple of Macaulay, yet he assuredly took a wider view of history than did his teacher. He appreciated the immense part played in the annals of England by the Church; but to the true importance of English law he was blind. He knew that lawyers had in some cases falsified history; he never perceived that the very errors of lawyers were themselves part of history, and that English law, from which, be it added, he himself drew his manly and generous ideal of justice, was the most original production of English genius.

In criticising authors of merited reputation, one should always remember that they live in virtue of their merits, which are their own, and deserve criticism, but not blame, for defects which belong to their generation or their training. But no future historian of England will, if he is at all equal to the performance of his work, be able to neglect the influence of English law. To have achieved this result is the glory of the historical school of lawyers. They have already, moreover, accomplished a good deal more than merely directing attention to the influence of legal ideas and of legal institutions. They have, in some instances at any rate, absolutely established, from their study of law, conclusions which must be taken into account by any one who wishes to understand or explain the progress of civilization. Mr. Jenks, for example, to recur to a point to which reference has been already made, has produced a great deal of evidence, which is new to English readers, of the difficulty felt by men who have reached only an early stage of civilization in understanding the nature of a contract. A transfer of possession or a transfer of ownership is in reality an idea which is more easily grasped than the conception of a promise or agreement. It is true that when once the idea of a promise or contract has been seized, it has, just perhaps because of the difficulty with which it was realized, an extraordinary hold upon the mind or imagination. The religious associations linked with the word "covenant," the political aspirations or convictions associated with the term "contract," show how great is the weight in some social conditions attributable to the conception of a compact; but it is nevertheless true that any inquirer who investigates the condition of early societies will find that men found it hard to understand the meaning of a promise. Even a "pledge," just because it was associated with some tangible thing which could be handled and felt, was more intelligible than the obligation connected with it; a marriage ring, the giving of an earnest, or shaking hands to bind a bargain, are all, in fact, survivals of a state of opinion in which men could hardly understand the existence of rights, duties, or obligations, unless you could connect them with something which could be seen and felt.

All that Mr. Jenks writes on this topic is excellent, but he avowedly does little more than illustrate or confirm doctrines propounded by other writers. Let no one, however, suppose that his book is deficient in originality. It is full of suggestions which are his own, and many of which well deserve consideration. He forces, for instance, on his readers' attention a view of the "Empire" founded by Charles the Great which assuredly is needed to complement the impression conveyed by the writings of Freeman and his followers. That Charles in a sense revived the Empire of Rome is true, but revivals are at bottom revolutions; and though it is an error to deny the connection between the Empire of Charles and the Empire of the Cæsars, it is almost the greater error to overlook the fact that artificial continuity involved essential dissimilarity. "In the end," writes Mr. Jenks, "the Frankish King assumes the sacred title of Imperator and is crowned at Rome, but, of course, the whole thing is a mimicry and a sham." The boldness of this language may provoke attack, but it contains an element of most important truth. We fully agree with our author that the revived Empire "had been a sham Empire from beginning to end, making pretensions which it could not support, using forms which it did not understand, undertaking duties which it could not perform." Readers, again, should consider with care Mr. Jenks's great generalization as to the constant conflict throughout history between the clan, founded on real or supposed connection of blood, and the state, created originally by military power and kept in existence by men's unconscious desire for the establishment of more or less equal and rational laws. No one will undertake to say—we doubt whether our author would himself assert—that the generalization he has suggested, and the inferences which he bases upon it, can as yet be regarded as more than very ingenious theories. Long and careful investigation of many obscure parts of the history of law will be necessary in order to turn these theories into established doctrines. Still, they are in the best sense suggestive; they point towards the direction in which we ought to look for the solution of many important problems.

A reviewer may be allowed to add one conjecture to the many ingenious suggestions made by our author as to the unconscious conflict between the state and the clan. Is the movement in favor of nationality at bottom more or less than a revival of the claims of the clan? Kinship is once more pitted against citizenship. Instinct comes into conflict with reason. If this be the case, the contest is no new one. But the glory of man is that, though an animal, he is a rational animal. The progress of mankind is in the long run the triumph of reason over instinct.

STRATEGY.

Letters on Strategy. By General Prince Kraft zu Hohenlohe-Ingelfingen. [Wolseley Series, edited by Capt. Walter H. James.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. 417, 345. Maps in pockets.

The plan of the 'Letters on Strategy' is

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most excellent. They are written by a veteran of the campaigns of Sadowa and Sedan to a young military friend, in familiar discussion of three great European campaigns, those of Jena, Magenta, and Sedan. In these France was victorious in two, against Prussia and Austria respectively, and an impartial analysis is made of the merits and defects of the leadership on both sides. In the great struggle of 1870 a fuller examination becomes possible, and the discussion fills nearly three-fourths of the whole work. Its thesis is that Moltke and the German staff systematized and improved upon the principles and practice of the great Napoleon.

The author avoids the assumption that strategy should rank among the sciences. He says: "Strategy is not a science, but an art which must be practised"; and as to the master strategist, he adopts the ancient maxim regarding poets, "He must be born, not made." For those having a natural adaptation for the work the best theoretic instruction is the inductive, going through the history of campaign after campaign, "and then to marshal the facts we shall thus arrive at, and from them derive rules of conduct of the widest and most certain application." In summing up his work the author shows that the analytical comment on the several campaigns has developed the very rules which the favorite German authorities have systematically stated, and that his conclusions are therefore in harmony with those of Clausewitz, Blume, Bronsart, and Goltz.

He finds, however, that there are a very few maxims so general and so fundamental that they may be laid down as the axioms which will be assumed in all strategic discussion, and must be ever present in mind with commanders. They apply to armies and navies alike, and will be so profitably suggestive to every intelligent reader of war news to-day that it is well to quote them. They are five in number:

"1. National policy must be closely allied at every point with strategy.

"2. At the onset the destruction of the enemy's army must form the objective. Everything else, the occupation of cities or territories, is only of secondary importance.

"3. It is impossible to be too strong for a decisive battle. The whole efforts of strategy must be directed to this end, not diverting more forces for secondary objects than are absolutely necessary.

"4. No rigid system must be adhered to; the object should be to choose by sound judgment the shortest path to the desired goal.

"5. Changes in the plan of operation lead to incalculable losses of strength and time. Unless, therefore, the enemy or the elements enforce such alterations, they are to be avoided. Sudden changes of intention in the leader have often produced the greatest misfortunes."

The working of systematic and complete arrangements was well shown in 1870. The plan of beginning the campaign had been fully settled for two years. The place of concentration of the German forces made Rhenish Prussia and the Palatinate the base of active operations. The local depots at home for each corps were fixed and everything needed for taking the field was there. The reserves all knew just where to go when the order to mobilize should come, and the peace establishment was at once expanded to the war footing. The railway time-tables were all made out with the maximum number of trains which the several roads could put in motion. The only order needed was the brief telegraphic one, "Mobilize according to regulation." This put all the wheels in motion. The reserves streamed to the depots, were clothed, shod, and armed, their field transportation was there ready for them, the railway trains came as if by spontaneous intelligence, and a perfectly organized army of half a million disciplined soldiers was on the French border in less than twenty days.

Louis Napoleon supposed his own army was "archiprêt," and Moltke had been willing to concede that the French, if really ready, might cross the Rhine before the Germans could reach the Mosel Valley; but the practical drill of the Prussian staff proved its value, and the speed with which the "strategic deployment" on the frontier was made surpassed anything the world had seen. To say nothing of the unreadiness of the French in equipment, they lost a week in concentration, and that week gave the Germans the initiative with preponderant force at Woerth, where one wing of Louis Napoleon's army was shattered. It secured also the union of the whole German army before Metz, kept the French on the defensive without the ability to complete their concentration, and led by logical methods to the great disasters which culminated at Sedan. The meaning of the object-lesson is that the perfection of organization of a great standing army may be such that, with superior system and speed in mobilization, the fate of a campaign between contiguous nations of equal power may be determined in effect before a battle has been fought. The days of going rashly and gayly into war with any but a very inferior Power, in the expectation of getting ready after the war begins, are over. A nation so exceptionally situated as ours may yet be practically invincible in self-defence; but from a military point of view it would be ridiculous to undertake aggressive war with a really first-class Power. Our traditional policy of careful non-interference with other nations is in no small measure the result of sagacious recognition of the facts by our real statesmen from Washington downward.

A second practical lesson, applicable to our present situation, is the success of the German leaders in making their subordinates so intelligent and expert in the work of a campaign, and so zealous in carrying out the general purpose, that very brief and general orders were all that was required for very important movements. "A commander," says our author, "must never enter into more details than is absolutely necessary. He should never interfere without good cause with the sphere of the subordinate. By these means subordinates are trained for spontaneous and independent action. . . . It is only thus that dead, mechanical obedience is avoided, and self-acting obedience combined with initiative is produced." The most striking illustration of this is the fact that the attack on the Sedan position was made by the armies of the Crown Prince of Prussia and the Crown Prince of Saxony, on September 1, 1870, without orders from the royal headquarters, and when the Saxon Prince had asked for a day of much-needed rest for his troops. The Prussian Prince learned in the night of a probable effort of the French to force their way out towards Mézières, and gave the information to his Saxon comrade with notice of his own purpose to advance decisively on the left at the break of day. The Saxon Prince at once issued his own orders for an attack by the right at the same time, and both thus anticipated orders from Moltke which came after the movements were in full progress.

There can be no such initiative when there is the least doubt of the readiness at general headquarters to approve and applaud such assumption of responsibility, if it is done intelligently and in real comprehension of the general plan and object. It has more commonly been the reproach of modern armies that spontaneity is so snubbed by jealous superiors that "dead, mechanical obedience" has been the rule, and zealous initiative the exception. Yet the first is the prolific source of delays, cross-purposes, and failures, while the other, when used with intelligence, is the spring of energy that seizes the fleeting opportunity without hesitation, and brings triumphant success. Among the lessons taught during the last thirty years, let us hope that our officers have not forgotten to learn this.

Prince Hohenlohe-Ingelfingen avoids every appearance of mere technicality in his study of the campaigns he has selected as examples, and his lucid and familiar style makes his work entirely intelligible to the general reader. He points out examples of error as well as of correct strategy, and shows how simple are the principles on which a campaign is conducted. But he reiterates the truth that while the whole seems the most natural application of common sense, the execution often involves the most terrific difficulties. Here the highest qualities of mind and will, of courage and perseverance, of self-possession and of resource are demanded. It may be doubted whether any other book on the subject better deserves to be a vade-mecum with the military student than this. The English edition is in excellent form, and the maps enable us easily to follow the text.

MRS. STANTON'S MEMOIRS.

Eighty Years and More (1815-1897): Reminiscences of Elizabeth Cady Stanton. New York: European Publishing Co. 1898.

Mrs. Stanton has had a busy and eventful life, and she tells its story in a manner that is engaging, both because of the variety of her experience and because of her satisfaction and delight in the recital. But her narrative is often overweighted with trivial minutiæ. She was born November 12, 1815. She represents herself as suffering much from a repressive training, and more from the theological system in which she was brought up; declaring that all the cares and anxieties, the trials and disappointments of her whole life have been light in comparison with her sufferings in childhood and youth from her religious experience. This was intensified when, upon going away to school, she became subject to the revivalism of Finney and was converted in the manner then approved. The account of her school life is the more interesting because the school, that of Mrs. Willard in Troy, was a famous one, a step in the direction of the better education of women. The first attack Miss Cady planned upon the laws unfavorable to women was an amusing one. As a mere child she was impressed by the injustice done to women as she listened to their complaints in her father's law-office. The banter of the students there as to her own prospective disabilities increased her indignation, and, thinking that, if she could cut the obnoxious laws out of her father's law-

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books, they would be annulled for ever, she set out to accomplish her great design, but it was frustrated by an accomplice. Thereupon she had her initiation into the business of her life, her father explaining to her how laws were made, and saying to her, "When you are grown up and able to prepare a speech, you must go down to Albany and talk to the legislators. . . . And if you can persuade them to pass new laws, the old ones will be a dead-letter."

On p. 60 Mrs. Stanton tells us that she was married May 10, 1840, but on p. 71 the happy day proves to have been May 11, the bridegroom's detention on his journey making a postponement necessary. Seven children were born of this marriage, six of whom are still living. The wedding journey was unique. It took Mr. and Mrs. Stanton to England in company with James G. Birney and others, delegates, like themselves, to the World's Anti-Slavery Convention. It was probably her game of "tag" with her brother-in-law, just before sailing, that impressed Mr. Birney with Mrs. Stanton's superabundant vitality. We have very interesting glimpses of different members of the convention. When it rejected the women delegates, Garrison went outside the camp with them, sharing their reproach. "After coming three thousand miles to speak on the subject nearest to his heart, he nobly shared the enforced silence of the rejected delegates. It was a great act of self-sacrifice which should never be forgotten by women." Mrs. Stanton and her husband had already agreed to differ on some things; he was joined to the Liberty party, which had broken with Garrison, and her sympathies were with the followers of Garrison; his devotion to the rights of women counting much in his favor in her eyes. In their later life Mrs. Stanton and her husband found themselves differing widely in their political opinions, she cleaving to the Republicans even in 1884, and he long before that becoming a Democrat, after the manner of the New York *Sun*, for which he was a writer for some years.

To return to the World's Anti-Slavery Convention, we are told that Elizabeth Fry was studiously contemptuous of Lucretia Mott because Lucretia was a Hicksite Friend, while Mrs. Fry was stiffly orthodox: "If Mrs. Mott was on the lawn, Mrs. Fry would go into the house. If Mrs. Mott was in the house, Mrs. Fry would stay out on the lawn." One evening, when they were all crowded into the parlors, Mrs. Fry found herself impelled by the Spirit to pray for the schismatic Americans, that they might be brought to see the error of their ways. Mrs. Stanton urged Mrs. Mott to make a devout retort, but Mrs. Mott felt that one breach of hospitality was quite enough. Tennyson's applausive reading of his own "Maud" is capped with a difference by Thomas Clarkson's getting his wife to read before a company an article which he had written against colonization, and interrupting her with "Hear! hear!"—so absorbed in the matter that he forgot himself as the writer.

In chapter vii., "Motherhood," Mrs. Stanton gives abundant proof that her interest in great public affairs has not slackened her interest in her home affairs. She has been an enthusiastic housekeeper. As to the proper treatment of new-born babies and nursing infants she has much to say on which only experts can decide. One of her ideas is, that babies are born tired and need immediate rest. One is tempted to say, if Mrs. Stanton was born tired, the condition was one she seldom experienced in her maturity. She seems to have been always "going to and fro in the earth," and to have been always fresh and ready for each new adventure.

In 1843 Mrs. Stanton's home was established in the vicinity of Boston, and she had much pleasant contact with the anti-slavery people there, and listened with warm approval to the preaching of Theodore Parker. Writing of "the first volume of Whittier's poems, published in 1838," she takes no account of the volume of 1837, published by Isaac Knapp and issued from the office of the *Liberator*, of which Knapp was the printer at that time. Her ninth chapter brings Mrs. Stanton to one of the important stages of her life, the first Woman's Rights Convention. This was in 1847, when, on account of her husband's health, they had left Boston and settled at Seneca Falls, N. Y., where they lived for sixteen years. The convention originated in a chance meeting of Mrs. Stanton with Lucretia Mott and other liberal Friends. A month later there was another in Rochester, and Mrs. Stanton was fairly launched on a career of many labors and anxieties, in which, nevertheless, she has taken great satisfaction and delight. To her true yoke-fellow, Susan B. Anthony, she devotes two chapters of generous appreciation. To the more serious and humorous elements in her friend's career Mrs. Stanton has done equal justice. There was much need of the humorous elements to make the ridicule and abuse endurable. Emerson wrote of Phillips that a course of mobs made him the best stump-speaker in America. Miss Anthony's training was as good. It is written of her and Mrs. Stanton that they are of the most opposite characteristics, and that "each does not so much supplement the other's deficiencies as augment the other's eccentricities."

In 1854 Mrs. Stanton made that first speech to the Legislature which her father had prophetically intimated many years before. Before making it, she read it to him, an unsympathetic listener, and her success gave her courage for the ultimate event. Of that speech Miss Anthony printed 20,000 copies. In 1860 the new easy-going divorce laws of Indiana attracted Mrs. Stanton's warmest sympathy, and she entered heartily into the discussion which they aroused throughout the whole country. In a chapter upon marriage and divorce she makes a frank avowal of her sentiments. They will be shocking to the ecclesiastical and conventional moralist, and few, we hope, will range themselves beside her in her contention that the state has nothing to do with either marriage or divorce, and that if only "divorce were made respectable and recognized by society as a duty," there would be no further trouble. Another reform in which Mrs. Stanton took an active part was that of the Bloomer dress. It was not, she reminds us, originated by Mrs. Bloomer, but by Mrs Miller, the daughter of Gerrit Smith. The trials of this reform are set forth with much feeling. Evidently the loose Turkish trousers were not happily conceived; and in general the dress was not an attractive one. After a time the hearts of the bravest failed them, but Mrs. Stanton is able to record many hygienic improvements in the dress of women, and might, if she had chosen to do so, have gloried in the bicycle as doing more to effect a certain correspondence between fashion and convenience than the dress-reformers have been able to do at any time.

It is impossible for us to follow Mrs. Stanton into the various activities of her later life. The "journeyings often" of the great apostle were few compared with hers. From 1869 to 1873 she and Miss Anthony made many raids upon the West in the interest of their dearest hope; in 1891 going to California and making their work an important factor in a political campaign. In 1861 they were foremost in the organization of the Women's Loyal League, which had for its principal object the economizing of the rebellion for the emancipation of the slaves. The Centennial of 1876 was utilized as leverage for the woman's-suffrage agitation. During the next four years Mrs. Stanton wrote her 'History of Woman's Suffrage.' A task which subsequently engaged her interest was 'The Woman's Bible,' the second volume of which has recently appeared. This was an attempt to make on every text in the Bible bearing on the position of women its appropriate comment in the interest of women's wider liberties and fuller rights. It is not a little strange that Mrs. Stanton should have cared, with her purely rationalistic conception of the Bible, to engage in such a task. The more natural course would have been for her to ask, Why should the Bible present an adequate conception of the social position of woman in the modern world, and why should we be troubled in any way if it does not? To those holding the traditional opinion of the Bible, Mrs. Stanton's comments will appear irreverent and blasphemous; to those who regard it as she does they must appear superfluous.

In her concluding chapter Mrs. Stanton details with honorable pride the circumstances of the celebration of her eightieth birthday anniversary. It is clear that she has troops of friends, outnumbering all the enemies that she has ever made. And she has other satisfactions. If the suffrage has been extended to women only to an extent discouraging to her fondest hopes after so many years of agitation, the disabilities of women have been much ameliorated in many particulars, or have entirely disappeared, and their efficiency in the social organism has been much increased. Mrs. Stanton's temperamental happiness is, consequently, reinforced in her old age with gratitude for the victories already won, and with the assurance that the future has yet better things in store.

Die Kritik in der Englischen Literatur des 17. und 18. Jahrhunderts. Von Paul Hamelius. Leipzig: Th. Grieben's Verlag (L. Fernau). 1897. Pp. 207.

The present generation of scholars and readers is showing a remarkable increase of interest in the history and theory of literary criticism. Not only is the press sending out a growing stream of books on 'The Principles of Criticism,' 'The Evolution of Criticism,' and 'The Theory of Literature' (a score or more in this class within the last five years could easily be named); not only is the school of French criticism in practice, theory, and history captivating the judicious; not only is Aristotle's 'Poetics' (and many of its progeny) continually seeking new editors and printers, but the colleges also (Oxford, Harvard, Chicago, California) are beginning to treat the History of Criticism, and especially of English Literary Criticism, in their regular literary curricula.

The history of English literary criticism

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has never been thoroughly written. Involving, as the writing of it would, the reconstruction of many points in English literary history, and the consideration of so vast an amount of material, as yet undigested, it is doubtful if it can be adequately written as a whole until its parts have been thoroughly worked up in a series of monographs. Several of these monographs have already been attempted, but the work of Dr. Hamelius is, in our opinion, the most important contribution yet offered in the field. It is essentially an account of English literary criticism in the neo-classical period, especially in the years from about 1650 to 1725. The literary criticism of the Elizabethan period is sketched, but the author's picture is considerably out of focus, and it is evident that he lacks a thorough comprehension of the literary history of the period. Want of acquaintance with the studies of previous workers in the field, and especially with Prof. Schelling's monograph on Poetic and Verse Criticism in the Reign of Elizabeth, is unfortunately noticeable here, as elsewhere in the volume. So the account of the revival of Spenser's influence in the eighteenth century (pp. 111 ff.) might have been improved by reference to Prof. Phelps's 'Beginnings of the English Romantic Movement,' as might the account of the Return to Nature (pp. 155 ff.) by reference to Miss Reynolds's study of the Treatment of Nature in English Poetry between Pope and Wordsworth. Moreover, there are a few points in which Miss Wylie's Studies in the Evolution of English Criticism, as well as Prof. Vaughan's Introduction to his 'Selections in English Literary Criticism' in the Warwick Library, would doubtless have been of service. As it is, however, the author, by neglecting his *Mitstrebenden*, has followed Goethe's maxim, and has thereby perhaps been better enabled to cover a large amount of hitherto neglected evidence, and to present a more independent and original view of the subject. On the other hand, he has neglected a certain amount of evidence which should have been covered. Both points might be illustrated from the various novel entries, as well as from the omissions, in his interesting Bibliography (pp. 188-201). And as the work is less satisfactory for the larger Elizabethan period, so for the last half of the eighteenth century, in the still obscure and inadequately traced criticism of the nascent Romantic movement, it is incomplete and inadequate. Its strength is in the discussion of the criticism of the neo-classical period.

In spite of these and other necessary reservations, it must be said that Dr. Hamelius has accomplished a delicate and difficult task with considerable success, producing a monograph which comes near to serving the purpose of a full history of the subject in its period, and presenting evidence which should help very materially in that revision of many of the old and conventional views of English literary history which has begun in recent years, especially since the enunciation by Mr. Gosse of the thesis contained in his work 'From Shakspere to Pope,' and since later special studies in the closing of the Classical and the beginnings of the Romantic movement. The more important of his new views the author summarizes at pp. 185-187: first, that neo-classicism in criticism as in poetry is to be dated from Ben Jonson rather than later—other forms of it, of course, are to be found in the 'Areopagus,' in Webbe, Campion, Daniel, and others before Jonson; that in the criticism of Dryden's later period is to be found the germ of a new Romantic criticism, developed to some extent after Dryden also by Dennis, Addison, and especially Steele; that the classical criticism and views represented by Pope and his party never gained undisputed supremacy in England; that Dr. Johnson, in upholding the classical standard, supported a cause already lost; that the welcome of Ossian and of Percy's 'Reliques' was not the cause but the consequence of a change in taste which had been long preparing; and that the Romantic poetry which began soon after 1730 was a direct consequence of the earlier critical activity, as is exemplified in the case of the Wartons, father and sons. Points of novelty and interest also are involved in the author's treatment of Ben Jonson, Hobbes, Dennis, Steele, and the Wartons (although Joseph Warton's thoroughly modern and Romanticist criticism on Pope is hardly accorded the importance that belongs to it), as well as in the demonstration of the fact that the older English (Elizabethan) taste in poetry never completely disappeared even in the height of the classical reaction, but lived and held its own away from the court and the city in many a corner of England where old books were read and old customs were cherished—as with Sir William Temple, for example. Valuable, too, is the exposition of the moralistic interest in criticism and literature which became prominent as a new historical tendency in the early years of the eighteenth century, "so that it was clear enough to people of penetration that neither a Return to the Renaissance nor a conversion to French forms was impending."

The author displays a considerable power of historical generalization, especially in indicating the varying separate or opposing currents of tendency in his periods, and this lends interest to his remarks explanatory of the failure of most writers properly to distinguish these currents:

"The chief reason why the historians of literature have not more precisely exhibited them is because they have preferred to fix their attention on single writers of prominence, overlooking or neglecting the lesser critics whose works must serve as commentaries on the greater. The aversion of many English investigators to abstract considerations, together with their predilection for biographical particulars, is responsible for the errors that still prevail."

In accordance with the point of view herein implied is the main defect in the author's general method—a somewhat too schematic arrangement, and a tendency to introduce groupings somewhat too set and formal. A thread is easily secured, and the material is vastly simplified by reducing everything to the incessant antithesis of "Classical" versus "Romantic"; but is not the arrangement at some points somewhat arbitrary and artificial? Or, again, for instance, must the man who wrote the "Letters on Chivalry and Romance" be denied a position among Romantic critics, and Bishop Hurd be treated as a Classicist only, because he wrote the essay on the "Province of Dramatic Poesy"? In summarizing the historical bearing and significance of theoretical views on literature Dr. Hamelius displays much acumen; it is, however, a defect of his study that applied criticism is subordinated throughout to critical theory. After Addison, the former begins far to outweigh the latter in historical importance.

In minor points, we question whether "Puttenham" can fairly be ranked as a critic with Bacon and Sidney (p. 18); whether Spenser is really to be classed with Webbe and Campion as one of those who "were for confining English poetry to the model of ancient verse-forms" (p. 20); the propriety of the application of the term "Romantic" in even the loosest sense to Cowley (p. 48); and the attribution to Steele, "almost exclusively" (p. 97), of the inception of the critical Return to Nature—Worsfold in his recent work seems to find the first of the new Romantic doctrine in Addison. Nor is the account of the "Rules" and their place in English criticism (pp. 119-122) quite adequate.

The author's style is compact and severe, but logical and clear—all points of great merit in German prose. The book badly needs an index.

How to Play Golf. By H. J. Whigham. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

"There was a time when golf was played as a recreation," says Mr. Whigham, but the observer of manners and customs who reads newspapers and listens to general conversation in these United States, will be disposed to doubt the assertion. It is but a few years ago that we called attention to the merits of the game, and expressed surprise that it had not attracted the notice of the increasing number of people in this country who are interested in field sports. And now it has suddenly become almost as universal as bicycling, and vast numbers of men and women of all ages seem to regard it as the most serious business of life. People who never before played any kind of game are now intensely interested in the comparative merits of the mashie and the lofter, and there is danger that the final disappearance of the art of conversation at dinners and other social meetings will be due in a great measure to the melancholy fact that the golfer can talk of nothing but golf.

Of course the popularity of the game has resulted in the production of considerable literature. The great Badminton volume, of which Mr. Whigham truly says that it is rather an aid to experts than a consolation to beginners, has already passed through several editions, and will probably continue to hold its own as a sort of golfer's Koran. But inasmuch as the conditions surrounding the game in this country differ from those encountered elsewhere, and Mr. Whigham devotes considerable space to the important questions of making and improving links in our climate, his work cannot be considered superfluous. On the contrary, American players will find it very useful. Being on a much smaller scale than the Badminton book, it naturally appeals to the beginners for whom it is mainly intended; and the numerous instantaneous photographs of experts making the different strokes come very near to making the reader a spectator on the links where these strokes were played, and challenge his imitation. We entirely concur in Mr. Whigham's statement that "the most frequent fault which assails all golfers consists in standing too much in front of the ball," but for this very reason it seems unwise to discourage, as he does, the method of driving from the left leg. Doubtless it does not suit the average man; but if a beginner finds that he cannot learn to drive in the open style, let him try this method,

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and, even if he does not become a second Laidlay, he may surprise himself and immensely improve his game. Again, we approve the recommendation of a short swing for those who begin golf comparatively late in life, as tending to greater accuracy, but we confess to being puzzled by the direction to "stand erect with the weight of the body equally distributed between each leg." Mr. Whigham wisely prefers the mashie to the lofter, and considers a cleek an excellent instrument for putting; thus, inferentially, reducing the number of necessary clubs to three. This is a desirable method of simplifying the practice of the game, and it is a method that has been found to work admirably on many courses. The advocates of the brassey will probably scout such an idea, but a little experience of the virtues of a well-balanced cleek for the second shot may change their views.

The drive is no doubt the easiest stroke in the game, and it is certainly the stroke that most players like best. It is, therefore, interesting to know that in this respect we are not far behind the Scotch and English records. Last year Mr. H. M. Harriman, in a long-driving competition, drove a ball 240 yards, and other American players have done nearly as well. Mr. Blackwell, who is probably the longest driver in England, has driven the long hole at St. Andrews (about 500 yards) in two strokes *twice in one day*, which is certainly an extraordinary performance, though not quite up to Mr. Tate's record drive of 340 yards. In this latter case, however, it should be stated that the *carry* was about 250 yards, and the nature of the ground caused an additional roll of nearly 100 yards. On level ground, 250 yards may be regarded as the maximum.

Through the Goldfields of Alaska to Bering Straits. By Harry De Windt. Harper & Bros. 1898. 8vo, xii, 314 pp. Illustrated.

Mr. De Windt's intention was to make a journey, in the main overland, from New York via Bering Strait and Eastern Siberia to Paris. In this he failed. He succeeded in travelling with a companion from the head of Lynn Canal over the Chilkoot Pass and down the Yukon to St. Michael's, as many bad done before him. Thence he was transported by sea to Cape Chaplin, the Indian Point of navigators, on the western side of Bering Strait, by the United States revenue cutter *Bear*. Here he remained about six weeks, being taken off by the whaler *Belvedere*, which carried him to Unalashka, where he was transferred to the *Bear* and taken to San Francisco.

Books of travel may be roughly classified in two categories. In the one the traveller endeavors to add to the world's stock of knowledge about the region visited. In the other he endeavors to purvey for the lovers of sensational reading such a combination of fact and fancy as may stimulate a vitiated taste for excitement, and thereby earn a living. Admitting that the line between the two is not clean cut, there is usually little difficulty in assigning its place to any particular book. In the present case there is no difficulty whatever, as Mr. De Windt's narrative is, in both text and illustrations, sensational, and contains no new information of any value. It is the sort of "copy" one might expect an hysterical reporter to furnish to a "yellow" newspaper. Its usefulness, if any, will consist in the fact that a contemplation of the picture of two men climbing a cliff with a slope of sixty degrees, entitled "Nearing the Summit of the Chilkoot," may have a deterrent effect on some would-be Klondiker. Although many accounts of the Yukon trip have appeared in the daily press, the present one, if written in a calm and sensible manner, and illustrated by authentic photographs, might have been welcomed. The author is so intent on emphasizing the horrors of the Pass, the mud, the mosquitoes, etc., that he has wasted what a more sensible person would have recognized as a real opportunity for a good bit of work.

On the Asiatic side his ignorance of existing literature, and his extraordinary incapacity for dealing with a turbulent lot of drunken Esquimaux, resulted in what was for him a most uncomfortable six weeks. When it is remembered what excellent work for geography and anthropology was done on this very shore by the brothers Krause a few years ago, the contrast between the genuine explorer and the "reportorial" variety points an evident and much-needed moral.

So long as cheap paper and "process" engraving make the path of the bookmaker easy, we may expect a pretty large percentage of worthless publications annually. Nevertheless it is probable that the good sense of the reading public will soon grasp the distinction between real and sham exploration, and publishers will find it unprofitable to issue books which have no just title to be considered as contributions to either science or literature.

The Land of Arthur. By Marie Trevelyan. London: John Hogg; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

There appeared some time ago two books about Wales by Marie Trevelyan, 'Glimpses of Welsh Life and Character' and 'From Snowdon to the Sea.' Then, to complete the triad inevitable in all things Welsh, a quasi-historical work was published, entitled 'The Land of Arthur.' The first two volumes are popular and entertaining; the latest, popular and exasperating. 'The Land of Arthur' is a well-indexed but ill-digested mass of facts, fables, and fallacies, so uncritically and inextricably intermingled that the book seemed at first unworthy of serious notice; but the excellence of the index carried the day. The consecutive perusal of these 423 pages is an unremunerative and irritating task, but, by a skilful use of the copious index, the reader can obtain much misinformation mingled with many truths relating to Welsh history. Even these truths must first be verified by reference to less emotional works, for the atmosphere of this book is charged with a fervid patriotism and a turgid enthusiasm of phrase that give an unveracious coloring to the best established facts. A stately array of authorities, prefixed to the volume, lend it an air of historical solemnity, but there has been no sifting of evidence, no attempt to distinguish between trustworthy sources and legendary lore, and, worst of all, the author's own crude imaginings have added to the general confusion. The book seems to be a part of the great Celtic revival, and can be read with profit only by adherents of that cult.

The treatment of the Arthurian age is full but bewildering, and it is impossible for the humble seeker after truth to extricate the few facts from the entangling mass of fiction. The tale of the heroic struggle between Llewellyn and Edward I. has a most suspicious *ex parte* coloring. The English are uniformly described as fierce and malicious minions, "hungry panthers," etc., and Edward I. is "eternally disgraced," whereas the notorious and nationally characteristic treason and discord among the Welsh themselves are apologetically slurred over. The hard conditions of peace exacted by the English King are given in detail, but it is not mentioned that the heavy fine of 50,000 marks was afterward remitted. It is, however, a matter for gratitude that the old story of the slaughter of the Welsh bards by King Edward is not revived, and this is all the more to be commended since in most matters the credulity of the author is almost unbounded. The legend of the founding of Oxford by Alfred the Great is implicitly accepted (p. 53), although the paragraph in Asser's 'Life of Alfred' has been shown to be an interpolation, and the whole myth has been effectually disposed of by Messrs. James Parker and Hastings Rashdall. The story of the discovery of America in the twelfth century by Madog, the hero of Southey's "Madoc," kindles the author's enthusiasm, although she admits that there is some controversy about it. We learn, also, of certain edifying conversations between Caractacus and St. Paul at Rome. In the chronicle of Zonaras, not quoted by this author, we have some information about the sojourn of Caractacus in Rome which may be authentic; the Briton, gazing upon the stately structures of the capital, wondered why the occupants of such palaces should covet the humble huts of his countrymen. Beyond this, all information concerning Caractacus at Rome rests upon the untrustworthy testimony of the Welsh Triads. Caractacus died probably in the year 54 A. D. St. Paul went to Rome not earlier than 62 A. D. But this does not trouble our author; we do not know the exact dates about these two men, and consequently they must have met, and "a warm friendship between the great Apostle and the Cambro-British commander was the result." Moreover, since we know little about the movements of St. Paul and Caractacus between the years 60 and 67 A. D., it is "highly probable" that they were together in South Wales engaged in introducing Christianity. The author also accepts the late legend as truth that Joseph of Arimathæa went to Britain. Thus, with sufficient pride of race and an irresponsible imagination, we may, by accepting as historical truths the legends of a land, prove any statement about anything, if only no authentic information to the contrary can be obtained.

Again, a chapter is devoted to "The First Sailor King." This is Carausius, who, on the doubtful authority of Richard of Cirencester, likewise not quoted by the author, is made a native of St. David's. Now Carausius was a German, and Gibbon, who calls him "a Menapian of the meanest origin," admits that the account of his birth is untrustworthy. This man secured the title of Emperor during the reign of Maximian, who is in this work, and in the ever consistent index as well, persistently referred to as Maximinian, an error due, it would seem, to an injudicious combination of the real name with that of the later Emperor Maximin. But our author hints at no doubt concerning the origin of Carausius, and boldly claims him as one of the incomparable Welsh heroes. The authentic history of the Welsh is too distin-

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guished and noble to require this disingenuous treatment.

The English of this work is unpardonably slip-shod. "The science of military superiority superseded native courage" is a sentence, not to be corrected, but to be destroyed. "In a letter from Roger Lestrange to King Edward I. his death took place on the 11th of December 1282." As a general thing year-dates are profusely omitted, and only the days of the month given, but now and then, in a fine fit of exactitude, the date is furnished twice in full within the limits of a single page (pp. 362-363). But the worst offence is the rhetorical padding: descriptions of imaginary sunsets and other sky effects on the eve of battles centuries ago, and reveries of great commanders not quite in the style of Thucydides. For this one need not cite the list of authorities consulted. But, as has been said, the index to this badly written and exasperating book is excellent and useful.

Montaigne et ses Amis, La Boétie—Charron—Mlle. de Gournay. Par Paul Bonnefon, Bibliothécaire à l'Arsenal. Nouvelle édition. Paris: Armand Colin et Cie. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xv, 339, 413.

Five years ago the students of Montaigne were pleased by the publication of a handsome quarto volume entitled 'Montaigne, l'homme et l'œuvre.' It contained more than eighty well-chosen and interesting illustrations and a well-written compendium of the familiar facts regarding Montaigne's life and writings. The reprinting of the text in these two commonplace volumes makes rather more evident than before the absence in it of any original views or any personal investigations; but it remains an excellent summary of what has been previously noted and what has been frequently said, while the somewhat monotonous style is vivified by a very agreeable tone of feeling. M. Bonnefon is always on the large and generous side of disputed questions and uncertain points of view.

The study of Estienne de La Boétie, now inserted in the middle of the Montaigne chapters, was originally the introduction to an edition of La Boétie's works published by M. Bonnefon in 1892. These chapters have somewhat more the stamp of research than those concerning Montaigne; the editor of La Boétie's works naturally became more familiar with the details of his life than any one but a few students had been before, and the general reader is here informed of interesting facts whose interest is increased by the intelligent sympathy with which they are narrated. The chapters about Charron added at the end of the volume (with a sketch of Mlle. de Gournay) are less important. M. Bonnefon has not edited Charron's works; and in any case the vacillating old canon is a less interesting figure than the high-thinking young lawyer. Besides, when Sainte-Beuve has written thirty-five pages about a man—such a man—there is little occasion to say anything more on the subject.

M. Bonnefon, fortunately, in writing about Mlle. de Gournay, attains the same position as Sainte-Beuve in this respect. His sketch of her, though comprised in such a small frame, is full length, and has almost the effect of being life size. Moreover, in portraying her, he has given proof of admirable discernment of character. She has at last received from the hands of a competent judge complete justice, respectfully and admiringly rendered; and to do her justice is to do her honor. Sainte-Beuve, a half-century ago, in his early volume on sixteenth-century poetry, wrote in high terms of Mlle. de Gournay's abilities in literary discussion. M. Bonnefon, while fully recognizing her defects, sets forth the dignity of her life and the nobleness of her character, her loyalty and her candor, her generosity and her kindness, and shows himself touched with sympathy by the passionate enthusiasms of her nature. These passions, these enthusiasms, these vehemences brought upon "la docte fille," while living, much caricaturing ridicule, the echoes of which have not yet died away. M. Stapfer, only a year or two ago, spoke of her as "a virago of literature." No one can again justifiably use such language—unqualified—about her.

To represent Mlle. de Gournay truly is to dignify the judgment of Montaigne regarding her and to free it from detracting comments. This service M. Bonnefon's volumes render to the great Moralist.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, T. B. Baby Bell, and Other Verse. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Atherton, Gertrude. American Wives and English Husbands. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Barlow, Dr. C. Daydreams of a Doctor. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co.
Besant, Sir W. The Rise of an Empire. New York: M. F. Mansfield. 50c.
Cornell Studies in Classical Philology. No. VI. Macmillan. $1.50.
Douglas, R. B. A French Volunteer of the War of Independence. Appletons. $1.50.
Elder, Prof. William. Ideas from Nature. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. 75c.
Fleming, W. H. How to Study Shakespeare. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.
Gibbon, Edward. Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. Vols. IV. and V. London: Methuen; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Griffith, Mrs. Harriet P. R. Ursula at Home. Morristown, N. J.: Vogt Bros. $1.
Heilprin, Louis. The Historical Reference Book. Fifth ed., revised to 1898. Appletons. $2.
Herrick, A. B. Modern Switchboards. Philadelphia: Cutter Electrical and Manufacturing Co.
Hutton, Laurence. A Boy I Knew, and Four Dogs. Harpers. $1.25.
Huysmans, J. K. The Cathedral. New Amsterdam Book Co.
Kidd, Benjamin. Social Evolution. Revised edition, with additions. Macmillan. $1.50.
Lambert, M. B. Lessing's Minna von Barnhelm. American Book Co. 50c.
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